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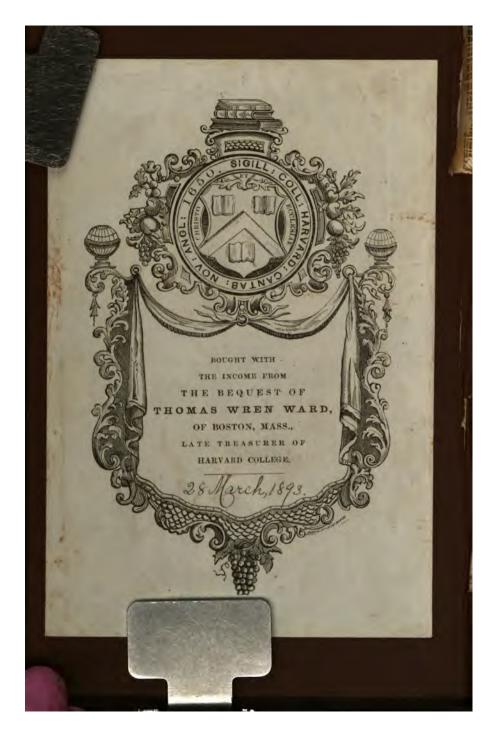
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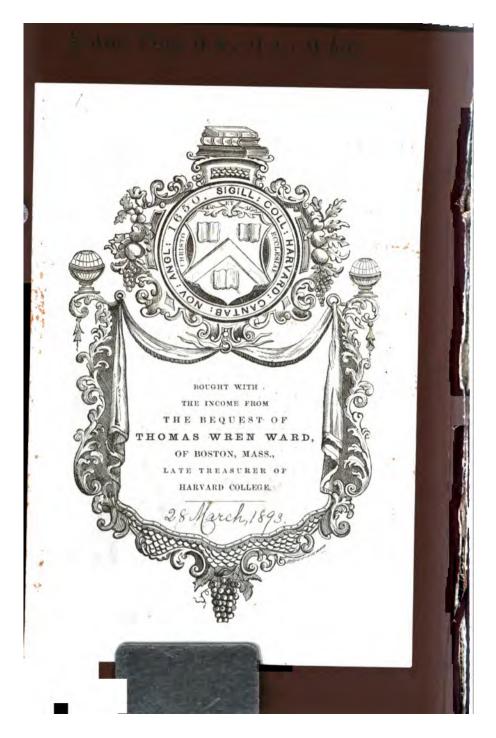
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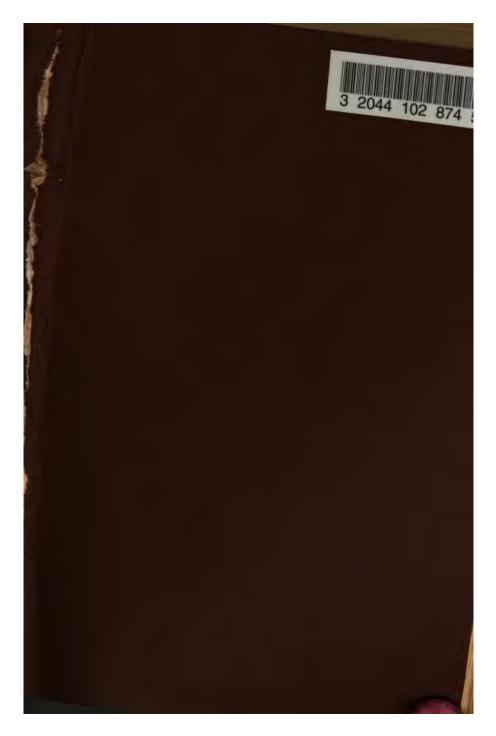
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A CLASS-BOOK

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OF

MODERN GEOGRAPHY

THE

CLASS-BOOK OF PHYSICAL GEOGRAPHY,

BY THE SAME AUTHOR AND EDITOR,

IS DESIGNED TO ACCOMPANY THIS BOOK.

A CLASS-BOOK

OF

MODERN GEOGRAPHY

WITH EXAMINATION QUESTIONS, NOTES, & INDEX.

BY WILLIAM <u>H</u>UGHES, F.R.G.S.,

LATE PROFESSOR OF GEOGRAPHY IN KING'S COLLEGE, LONDON.

Rew Edition : Revised and Extended

J. FRANCON WILLIAMS, F.R.G.S.

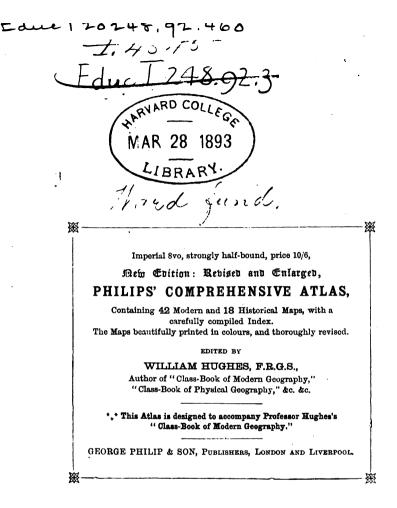


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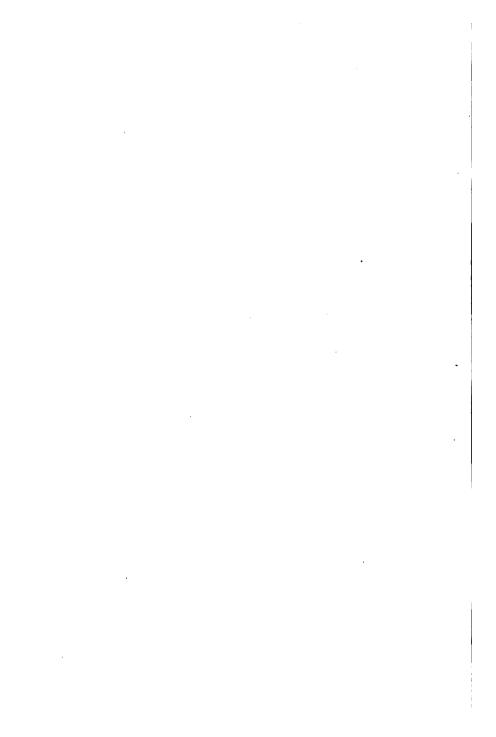
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PREFACE.

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THE following are some of the leading features of this popular School-book :---(1) Its clear and scientific arrangement. In this work there is no arbitrary division between Physical and Political Geography. The two are most intimately connected, and it is indisputable that the geography of any part of the earth may be best studied by combining them as much as possible, and carefully noticing the connection between them. The divisions of the subjectmatter in the present work are throughout based on this principle. (2) Its comprehensiveness and completeness. Being designed for the use of the more advanced pupils and students, it was absolutely necessary that the work should be at once comprehensive and complete. Special care has therefore been taken to include net only the general facts of the science, but also every essential det. (3) Its thorough revision and extension. An examination of the work will show that the information throughout is of the latest and most reliable character, and that much additional matter has been inserted. (4) The valuable sets of Examination Questions appended to each section, and designed for written or oral exami-Teachers will doubtless regard these Questions as one of nations. the most important features of the work. (5) Its systematic arrangement of type-thus affording material aid in its study. The more important facts are printed in large type-less important but still essential detail in smaller type-while further information, statistical, etymological, historical, and explanatory, is given in the footnotes. And, lastly, a complete *Index* of all the places described or mentioned in the book.



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CLASS-BOOK

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MODERN GEOGRAPHY.

INTRODUCTION.

GEOGRAPHY (Gr. ge, "the earth," and grapho, "I describe") is a description of the earth.

In other words, Geography describes the earth not only as a whole, but also the lands and seas which constitute its surface, with their respective climates, productions, and inhabitants.

Such a description involves—

- 1. An account of the earth as a whole, its figure, magnitude, and motions.
- 2. An account of the natural features of the earth's surface, and of the climates, minerals, plants, and animals which belong to the different regions of the globe.
- 3. A description of the several countries into which the earth is divided, with the condition and pursuits of their inhabitants, and the localities of the principal towns in each.

The *first* of these three divisions is generally called Mathematical or Astronomical Geography, the *second* is distinguished as Physical Geography, and the *third* is known as Political and Commercial Geography.

1. Mathematical Geography is virtually included in the science of astronomy, and is here treated of only in so far as it relates to the figure, magnitude, and motions of the earth, and the determination of the various imaginary "points" and "circles," which are absolutely necessary in order to determine the exact positions of places.

2. Physical Geography treats of the *natural* features of the earth, its different climates, productions, and capabilities, and is chiefly valuable as the natural introduction to

3. Political and Commercial Geography, which treats of the *political* divisions of the earth, and the condition and *industrial* pursuits of mankind.

The two latter are thus intimately connected, and the geography of any part of the earth may be most profitably studied by carefully noticing the connection between them. A very brief reflection suffices to show that such a connection exists, and that it is attended by very important results.

a connection exists, and that it is attended by very important results. The people who live in a *hot country* are differently circumstanced from those who dwell in a cold country, and their modes of life will naturally be different in many respects. They will be led to adopt a different kind of

A

clothing, and their ordinary kinds of food, their houses, their outdoor labours and amusements, with many other things, will be different in the one case from the other. In like manner, the habits, manners, and ideas of people who inhabit a mountainous and rugged country will present great differences from those who belong to the inhabitants of a level plain. So also, a people dwelling on the borders of the sea will have habits and occupations differing in many ways from those of people who inhabit an inland region ; they will (to take one example only) be led to build ships, and thus to engage in maritime intercourse with other nations, which the inhabitants of an inland country can never do.

We shall see, as we proceed with our geography, numerous instances of this close connection between the natural condition and productions of different regions and the social state of their inhabitants.

EXAMINATION QUESTIONS.

1. What is the meaning of the term "Geography?" 2. What does "a description of the earth " in-

2. What uses volve? 3. How is geography generally divided? 4. What subjects are included under (1) Mathematical geography; (2) Physical geography; (3) Political geography?

5. What connection is there between the phy-sical and the political geography of a country?

6. How may the geography of any part of the earth be most profitably studied?

7. Give an example of the way in which the physical geography of a country affects the con-dition and pursuits of its inhabitants.

MATHEMATICAL GEOGRAPHY.

1. THE EARTH is very nearly a globe in shape, that is, it is round (like a ball or an orange).

(a.) That the earth is round is proved by

1. The circumnavigation of the globe.

2. The shadow of the earth, when the moon is eclipsed, is always "round."

3. The topmasts of a vessel approaching the shore are always seen first ; were the surface of the sea perfectly flat, the largest part of a vessel, the hull, would be seen first, and the small topmasts last.

4. The hull of a vessel leaving the land disappears first, the topmasts last, which would not be the case if the surface of the sea were not "curved."

5. The earth is a planet. All the other planets are round. The earth, therefore, is most probably "round" also.

(b.) The rotundity of the earth has not only been demonstrated as above, but has also been proved by actual measurements, from which astronomers have calculated its exact size and shape.

We thus know that the earth is not perfectly round, i.e., a sphere, 1 but is slightly compressed at the poles," so that its exact shape is that of an "oblate spherold."

2. The earth measures about 25,000 miles round, and a straight

^{1.} A sphere (Gr. Sphaira, a ball) is a perfectly round body. A sightly compressed body, like an 3. Peles, Gr. polos-peló, to be in motion.

line supposed to pass through its centre would be about 8,000 miles long.¹

The former of these measurements is called the *Circumference*² of the earth, the latter its *Diameter*.³

3. The earth is constantly turning round, in a direction from west to east, upon an imaginary line (called its $Axis^{*}$), which passes through its centre, and which therefore forms one of its diameters. This motion is the cause of day and night, and is called its Daily or Diurnal^{*} Motion, because the earth rotates on its axis once a day.

The earth's Axis is the imaginary line upon which it turns. Its extremities are called the *Poles* of the earth. One of them is the *North Pole*, the other the *South Pole*.

4. The earth also revolves round the sun once a year. This motion causes the four seasons, Spring, Summer, Autumn, and Winter, and is called its Annual Motion.

The exact time of the earth's rotation on its axis is 23h 56m 4s.

The exact time of the earth's revolution round the sun is 365d 5h 48m 51s.

5. The Equator[•] is a circle drawn round the earth midway between the poles—that is, at exactly the same distance from each pole.

The equator divides the globe into two halves or *Hemispheres*—a Northern Hemisphere and a Southern Hemisphere. The *Northern Hemisphere* is that half of the globe which is between the equator and the north pole, and the *Southern Hemisphere* is the half that is between the equator and the south pole.

6. North, South, East, and West are terms used to express the relative positions of places to one another. They are the four Cardinal' Points of the compass—an instrument used to determine the respective bearings of places.



There are altogether thirty-two points of the compass—twenty-eight of the number being intermediate between the four cardinal points. The point lying midway between north and east is called *North-East*; that midway between north and west is *North-West*. In like manner the points lying midway between the east and west and the south points are called *South-East* and *South-West*.

These points are sometimes called the four Collateral Points. The Cardinal Points are generally abbreviated thus:--N., S., E., W. The Collateral Points thus:--N.E., N.W., S.E., S.W.

L mill cate and the second sec	Circumference, Lat. circum, round; fero, Diameter, Gr. dia, through; metrom, a sure. Aris, Lat. aris, an arle-tree. Diurnal, Lat. diurnue, of or belonging to a Equator, Lat. ague, I make even or equal. Cardinal, Lat. cardinatis, chief, i.e., the i points of the horison.
L more estimate, and the line line line line line line line lin	Try. Diameter, Gr. dia, through; metron, a sure. Aris, Lat. aris, an axle-tree. Diurnal, Lat. diurnus, of or belonging to a Equator. Lat. cardinal: a chief, i.e., the Cardinal. Lat. cardinalis. chief, i.e., the

7. A Meridian¹ is a line drawn round the earth in the exact direction of north and south-that is, passing through the poles, and crossing the equator at right angles.

Such a line may be supposed to pass through any given place on the earth's surface (and may, of course, be actually drawn upon the surface of the artificial globe); it is then called the Meridian of that place. Thus, a line drawn through London in the exact direction of north and south is called the Meridian of London.

8. The Positions of Places on the earth's surface are indicated by means of latitude and longitude.³

Latitude is distance in the direction of north and south.

Longitude is distance in the direction of east and west.

The amount either of latitude or longitude is expressed in degrees.

Every circle, whether great or small, is supposed to be divided into 360 equal parts or Degrees. A quarter of a circle (or quadrant) contains, therefore, 90 degrees.

9. Latitude is distance measured, in degrees, from the equator towards either pole; and the greatest latitude which a place can have is 90 degrees-that is, the extreme distance of either pole from the line of the equator.

All places situated between the equator and the north pole are said to be in North Latitude; all places that lie between the equator and the south pole are in South Latitude. (Abbreviated thus:-London, 51° 30' N.; Melbourne, 37° 50' S.).

10. Longitude is distance to the east or west of any given meridian, and is measured halfway round the globe-that is, 180 degrees upon each side of any meridian-and is called East Longitude or West Longitude, according as it is to the east or to the west of the meridian that is used.

In England, we use the meridian supposed to pass through Greenwich (near London), where our National Observatory is situated. Hence we say that a place is so many degrees longitude east of Greenwich or west of Greenwich. (Abbreviated thus :- London, 0° 5' W.; Melbourne, 144° 58' E.).

11. Every **Degree** is divided into sixty equal parts called *Minutes*. and every minute is divided into sixty equal parts or Seconds.

The following signs are used to express degrees, minutes, and seconds-• 1". If it is necessary to express distances (either of latitude or longitude) which are less than a degree, we say that a place is in so many degrees, so many minutes, and so many seconds, using these signs. Thus, 24° 16' 8", means twenty-four degrees, sixteen minutes, and eight seconds; just in the same way that, in order to express an amount of money, we might say £24, 16s. 8d., that is, twenty-four pounds, sixteen shillings, and eight pence.

12. Parallels of Latitude are circles drawn round the globe in a direction parallel to the equator.

Parallels are usually drawn upon artificial globes and maps at every ten (or sometimes every five) degrees apart. They serve to show, in a general

1. Meridian, Lat. meridies, mid-day. Places on the some meridian have mid-day or noon at scatcly the some sime. 2 Latimate, Lat. kativado, breadth; longitade lat. konjivado, length. These terms were applied from north to south.

way, the latitudes of various places. Places that are on (or near) the same parallel have, of course, the same (or nearly the same) latitude.

13. Meridian Lines—that is, lines in the exact direction of north and south-are also generally drawn upon globes and maps at distances either of five or ten degrees apart, and serve to show the longitudes of places.

Places that are on (or near) the same meridian have the same (or nearly the same) longitude.

14. The **Tropics**¹ are circles drawn round the globe in a direction parallel to the equator, and at a distance of 231° from that line.

That drawn at 231° to the north of the equator is called the *Tropic of Cancer*; the similar circle drawn at 231° south of the equator is called the *Tropic of Capricorn*. These lines mark the furthest distances, on either side of the equator, within which the sun is vertical.

15. The two Polar Circles are drawn round the globe in a direction parallel to the equator, and at distances of 23¹° from either pole.

The circle drawn at 234° from the north pole is distinguished as the Arctic^z Circle. That drawn at 232° from the south pole is called the Antarctic³ Circle. These circles mark the limits (from either pole) within which the sun remains wholly above the horizon for a term of more than twenty-four hours at one season of the year, or does not rise for a term of more than twenty-four hours at the opposite period of the year.

16. Zones.³—The tropics and polar circles serve to divide the surface of the earth into five Zones-one torrid* zone, two temperate⁵ zones, and two frigid⁶ zones.

1. The Torrid Zone extends on either side of the equator, and is bounded on the north by the Tropic of Cancer, and on the south by the Tropic of Capricorn.

2. The North Temperate Zone is the space between the Tropic of Cancer and the Arctic Circle.

3. The South Temperate Zone lies between the Tropic of Capricorn and the Antarctic Circle.

4. The North Frigid Zone embraces the space within the Arctic Circle surrounding the north pole.

5. The South Frigid Zone comprises the space within the Antarctic Circle surrounding the south pole.

The Torrid Zone is the hottest part of the world, because there the sun is vertical, or directly over head. The Frigid Zones are the coldest parts of the globe, for there the sun is, during a portion of the year, wholly absent-not rising above the horizon for weeks (or months) in continuous succession. The Temperate Zones (as the

^{1.} Greek, trepo, I turn. Becauso the sun, in its apparent annual path through the heavens, turns hack towards the equator when it has reached a point vertically over the line of the tropic, or 23⁴ on either side of the equator. 2. Arctic, Antarctic, Gr. arkies, a bear, from the constellation of the Great Bear which over-lies the arctic circle. The torm arctic is also spnonymous with northern or the north. In the term antarctic, the prefix anti means opposite

to or over against, i.e., opposite to the arctic circle. 3. Zones, Gr. sond, a belt or girdle. 4. Torrid, Lat. torridus, parched or scorched. 5. Temperate, Lat. tempero, I moderate-the climate of this some being neither extremely hot nor intensely cold. 6. Frigid, Lat. frigidus, coud; the frigid zones are intensely cold.

word "temperate" implies) are neither so hot as the torrid zone, nor so cold as the frigid zones.

The extent of the various zones is as follows :---

1. The Torvid Zone from 23° 28' north, to 23° 28' south, of the equator ; total breadth, 46° 56" (or about 3,238 miles).¹

2. The North and South Temperate Zones, from 23° 28' to 66° 32' north and south latitude respectively, are each 43° 4! broad.

3. The North and South Frigid Zones have each a radius of 23° 28' from the north and south poles respectively.

4. Of a total area of 197,000,000 square miles, the torrid zone embraces 78,406,000; the temperate zones, each 51,121,500; and the frigid zones. each 8,175,500.

EXAMINATION QUESTIONS.

1. What is the shape of the earth? 2. How can we prove that the earth is round? 3. What is the scatch shape of the earth? 4. What is the scatch shape of the earth? 5. Does the earth more? How? 6. What phenomena are caused by (a) the maxual and (b) the diversal motions of the earth? 7. What is the optical motions of the earth? 7. What is the equator, and how does it divide the globe? 6. What is meant by the point of the ware the cardinal and collateral points mand?

10. What is a meridian; 11. How are the positions of places on the earth's surface indicated (b) longitude; 12. What is (a) latitude; (b) longitude; 13. What purpose do (a) parallelis and (b) meridian; lieus surve? 14. What are the tropics, and what do they indicate! 15. How many scass are there? Name them 16. How many scass are there? Name them 17. Which is the kotisst scare? Which is the coldies! coldant 1

PHYSICAL GEOGRAPHY.

THE surface of the earth is divided into land and water, the LAND occupying little more than one-fourth, and WATER nearly threefourths of the whole.

The total area of the globe is estimated at 197,000,000 square miles, of which Land occupies 51,500,000 square miles, and Water 145,500,000 square miles.

I. LAND.

The land occupies little more than one-fourth of the surface of the globe, and consists of two immense continuous masses and a vast number of smaller separate masses.

The two continuous land-masses are separated by the Atlantic and Pacific Oceans, and are called the Eastern and the Western Continents respectively.

1. The Eastern Continent is divided by the chain of the Ural Mountains and the Mediterranean Sea into three great divisions :- Europe, Asia, and Africa.

2. The Western Continent is divided by the Caribbean Sea and the Gulf of Mexico into two main portions, called North and South America.

^{1.} The length of a degree of latitude varies length of a degree of longitude varies constantly, lightly, increasing from 697 statute miles near decreasing from 69 miles at the Equator (475) the Equator to 694 towards the Poles. The lat 45 N. or 5) to 0 at the Poles.

8. To the south east of the Hastern Continent is another vest mans of land. entirely surrounded by the sea, called Australia.

Each of the great divisions of the two main land-masses (and the island of Australia) is also called a Continent, so that there are six Continents :--- Europe, Asia, Africa, North America, South America, and Australia¹

Europe, Asia, and Africa together form the Eastern Continent, or the Old World, so called because they were known to the nations of antiquity. America, often called the New World, was not discovered until a comparatively modern period-towards the close of the 15th century.

1. EUROPE is the north-western portion of the Old World, from the rest of which it is separated by the Mediterranean Sea and the Ural Mountains.

2. ASIA is the eastern, and by far the largest, portion of the Old World.

Europe and Asia form in reality one continuous and connected mass of land, and are often spoken of together under the name of *Eurasia*.

3. AFRICA is the southern portion of the Old World, and is separated from Europe by the Mediterranean Sea, but united to Asia by the Isthmus of Snez.

4. AMERICA, though sometimes spoken of as one continent, is distinctly divided into two great masses, united only by the narrow Isthmus of Panama, and distinguished as North America and South America.

5. AUSTRALIA is an immense island lying to the south-east of Asia, from which it is separated by the Malay Archipelago.

Australia, New Zealand, and the numerous islands and archipelagoes in the Pacific are sometimes classed together under the general name of Oceania.

Of the above divisions of the land, Europe, Asia, Africa, and Australia are in the Eastern Hemisphere, and North and South America in the The whole of North America, Europe, Asia, a Western Hemisphere. small part of South America, and the greater portion of Africa, are north of the equator, i.e., in the Northern Hemisphere. The remaining portions of South America and Africa and the whole of Australia are south of the equator, i.e., in the Southern Hemisphere.

1. The Eastern Hemisphere contains twice as much land as the western.

2. The Northern Hemisphere contains three times as much land as the southern.

3. The Continental Hemisphere, that is, a hemisphere in which England occupies the centre, includes the greater part of the land, while

4. The Oceanic Hemisphere is nearly all covered with water, the only considerable portions of land being Australia, New Guinea, &c., and the southern part of South America.³

1. The areas of the continents, in round num- bers, are as follows :	Sq. Miles. Northern Hemisphere,
Kurope,	Eastern Hemisphere,
Africa,	Continental Hemisphere, 43,500,000 Oceanic Hemisphere, 8,000,000
Australia,	••• For full particulars relative to the distribu- tion of land and water, the student is referred to

spheres is as follows :---

the Geography of the Oceans (G. Philip & Son).

The following terms are used to denote various portions of the land :---

1. Continent.¹-The largest divisions of land are called Continents.

There are, as we have said, six continents :- Europe, Asia, Africa, North America, South America, and Australia.

2. Island.²-A portion of land surrounded by water is called an Island. Borneo, Madagascar, Iceland, Great Britain-any one of which may be readily found upon an artificial globe, or on a map of the world-are examples of islands.

Several small islands lying close to each other form a Group. Several large islands or island-groups near each other form an Archipelago. An Islet is a small island in the sea. An Eyot is an island in the channel of a river.

3. Peninsula.^{*}-A portion of land nearly surrounded by water is called a *Peninsula*. Italy, Greece, Florida, Arabia, are examples of peninsulas. Sweden and Norway (together) also present an example of a peninsula ; so, too, do Spain and Portugal.

4. Isthmus. --- A narrow neck of land which unites any two larger portions is called an Isthmus. As, for example, the Isthmus of Suez, which unites Asia and Africa; the Isthmus of Panama, which joins North and South America; and the Isthmus of Corinth, which joins the southern part of Greece (the Morea) to the mainland.

Of the two most important isthmuses of the world, those of Sues and Panama, the former is already pierced by a canal large and deep enough to and an "inter-oceanic canal" across Nicaragua or the Isthmus of Panama would enable vessels to proceed from the Atlantic directly into the Pacific, thus avoiding the dangerous and tedious voyage round Cape Horn.

5. Coast.⁴-The line where the land and water meet is called the coast.

The term Coast' is generally used when land is spoken of, and Shore' when the sea is spoken of.

The term sea-board is synonymous with "shore," and means the border or margin of the land adjoining the sea.

The Beach is that part of the land between the high and low watermarks.

1. Continent, Lat. con, together; and to hold.	
hold. 2 Island, OFr. igland, i.e., sys-land; insula.	Lat

insula. 3. Peninsula, Lat. posse, almost; and insula, an island. 4. Greek, isthemos, the name given to the nar-row neck of land which joined the Peloponnesus (or Morea) to the mainland of Greece, near the city of Orinth. 5. (a) The length of the coast-line of each conti-nent, and (b) the summer of square mides of surface to each mide of coast, are as follows -(a) (b)

_				.(0)	(0)
Lurope,.				19.500	190
Asia, . Africa, .				19,500 85,000	800
Africa.				16,000	750

North America.			(a) 24,500	(b) 350
South America, Australia,	•	• .	15,000 10,000	482 800

In proportion to its erves Europe has little more than two and a half times as much coast-line as Asia, very nearly four times as much as Africa, nearly twice as much as North America, and one and a half times as much as South America, and one and a half times as much as Australia. Taking Europe as 1, the extend of coast-line in proper-tion to area will be as follows:-Europe, 1: Asia, 38; Africa, 39; North America, 36; South America, 39; Australia, 43. (Coast, Lat. costa, a side. 7. Shore, A.-S. seerose, to divide.

6. Cape.¹-A point of land which advances beyond the general coast-line, so as to project or jut into the water, is called a Cape or Point.

The terms Promontory, Head, or Headland, are often applied to capesthe first more especially to high points of land. Cape Comorin (the southern point of India), Cape Horn (at the south of the New World), the Cape of Good Hope (in the south of Africa), and Flamborough Head (on the east coast of England) are examples of capes.

Of the local names of capes we may notice the terms Ness, Naze, Bill used in England, &c.; Mull, in Scotland; Foreland, in England and Ireland; Bec, in France, &c.

7. Plain.²—A portion of land not much raised above the sea. and with a generally level surface, is called a *Plain* or *Lowland*. European Russia, Lombardy (in North Italy), and the valley of the Mississippi (in North America), are examples of lowland plains.

Some of the great plains are distinguished by special names, such as

The Landes, or sandy plains of south-west France.

The Steppes of Russia and Central Asia, open and treeless plains.

The Tundras of Siberia, low swampy plains sloping into the Arctic Ocean. The Savannahs and Prairies of North America.

The Lianos or grass flats periodically inundated by the Orinoco. The Selvas or forest-plains of the Amazon valley.

The Pampas of La Plata, "broad thistly flat and grassy pastures."

8. Tableland.-A tract of land which rises to a considerable height (as a thousand feet or upwards) above the level of the sea, is called a *Tableland* or *Plateau*. The country called Tibet (in Central Asia) is an example of a plateau or tableland; so also is the interior of Spain, in the European quarter of the globe.

9. Mountain.—A smaller portion of land rising above the adjoining plain forms a Hill or Mountain." When many such elevations occur close beside one another, they form a Mountain Group, or if in succession in one line, a Mountain Range or Chain. The Grampians (in Scotland), the mountains called the Alps (be-tween Italy and Switzerland), the Himalaya Mountains (in Asia), are examples. The heights of places are generally expressed in feet, and are calculated from the level of the sea, that is, from the average level of the waters which cover so large a portion of the earth's surface. Thus, we say of a mountain or a tableland that it is so many thousand feet above the level of the sea.

Small hills are variously named. The general term is Hillocks, but if rounded they are called Knolls, if of chalk formation and rounded, Downs. Sand-hills on the sea-shore are called Dunes. High prominent peaks are in some parts of England called Tors, or, if formerly used as fire-signal stations, Beacons.

The terms "range" and "chain" are often used synonymously, but

A Mountain Range is a succession of connected elevations in the same line, as the Pennine Range; while

A Mountain Chain is a series of mountain ranges generally parallel to one another, as the Andes.

4. The term All is generally applied to eleva-tions under, and mountain to those above, 1,009 feet in height.

^{1.} Cape, Lat. coput, the head. 2. Plain, Lat. planus, fist, broad. 3. Plateau, Fr. plat, fist.

A Mountain Group consists of a number of irregularly assanged elevations near each other, as the Cumbrian Group.

A Mountain System is a series of ranges or groups of mountains having the same general direction or position. as the Alvine system.

A narrow opening between two adjoining mountains is called a Mountain Pass, and also, in some cases, a Defile or Ravine. The passes over mountain chains lie, in some instances, at vast heights above the plains below.

10. A Volcano¹ is generally a conical elevation with a cup-like hollow at its summit called a Crater.² from which lava, mud. &c., are ejected.

Volcanic districts especially are subject to Earthquakes. The Geysers of Iceland throw out jets of hot water ; the Solfataras of Italy, &c. emit sulphur and other gases.

11. Valley.¹—A sloping portion of land, bounded on either side by lands of greater height, forms a Valley.

The forms, both of valleys and of hills, are infinitely varied. Sometimes the slopes are long and gentle; in other cases they are abrupt and steep, so that the valley passes gradually into a ravine or defile. Valleys are gener-ally named after the rivers which flow through them, as the Valley of the Nuce. In Scotland, the terms Strath, Carse, Dale, &c., are used, as Strathmore, &c.

12. Desert.—A tract of country which does not allow of sufficient cultivation to be fit for the settled abode of man, is called a Desert.

The vast region called the *Sahara*, in Africa, is the most prominent example. It is to the want of water that the sterility of such tracts is for the most part due. But even in the Sahara there are, here and there, a few fertile spots, called Oases.+

EXAMINATION QUESTIONS.

1. What proportions do the land and water of the globe bear to its whole extent?

2. How is the land distributed?

8. Name the continents.

4. Which of the continents belong to the Old, and which to the New, World?

5. What (in round numbers) is the area of each continent?

6. What is an island; What is the difference between an islst and an syst;

7. Define the following terms and give examples of each:-(a) peninsula, (b) isthmus, (c) coast, (d) cape.

1. Volcano, from Vulcanus, the god of fire. 2. Orater, Gr. krater, a large bowl or cup. 8. Valley, Lat. vallis.

8. What is a plots: How are the great plains of Eurasia and America distinguished? 9. Explain the words tableland, highland, plotest. 10. What is (a) a hill, (b) a mountain : 11. How are small kills often distinguished? 12. Define the terms (a) mountain chain, (b) mountain range, (c) mountain group, (d) moun-tain system. 13. What is (a) a solcene, (b) a syster : 14. What is a user? To what varieties of aspect do valleys exhibit? 15. What is a desert? To what cause is the sterility of deserts for the most part due?

4. Oasis, Gr. casis, originally the name of an "island" in the "Sea of Sand" in North Africa.

II. WATER.

The terms applied to the various portions of the waters of the globe are the following :---

1. Ocean. - The vast expanse of water which covers the larger portion of the earth's surface is called the Ocean,¹ and is divided by the intervening lands into three great basins-the Pacific, Atlantic, and Indian⁴ Oceans. The waters which lie around the north pole are, in addition, distinguished as the Arctic' Ocean, and those in the neighbourhood of the antarctic circle are called the Antarctic[•] Ocean. There are, therefore, in all, five oceans.

(1.) The Pacific Ocean is by far the largest of the oceans, and covers more than a third part of the earth's surface. Its superficial extent is considerably greater than the united area of the several continents. In the direction of north and south-from Bering Strait to the Antarctic Circle-the Pacific stretches through more than 130 degrees of latitude, or upwards of 9,000 miles; from east to west-between the 80th meridian west, and the 104th east, of Greenwich-its dimensions are still greater, exceeding 170 equatorial degrees, or above 12,000 miles. An ocean that measures 12,000 linear miles in one direction, and 9,000 in another, must of necessity exercise a vast influence over all the lesser features of the earth's surface, and is of the highest importance to mankind.

The Pacific is distinguished from the other oceans by its shape, and by the character of its shores. It is a vast oval, the coasts of which, after making near approach in the extreme north, gradually recede towards the direction Thence to the southward, they again approximate, though in a much less degree than is the case in the northern half of this great ocean. The waters of the Southern Pacific stretch, uninterrupted by land, to the line of the Antarctic Clinck and archang area to the south back in the southern back is a stretch of the southern back is the south the south the south south south and the southern back is a stretch of the south sou Circle, and perhaps even to the south pole itself.

The Pacific has no inland seas connected with its waters. Its eastern shores exhibit-the Gulf of California excepted-no indentations of the land upon a scale of great magnitude. But its western side displays a feature which is peculiarly characteristic of this ocean, in the range of seas and gulfs which stretch along the coasts of Asia, between the mainland and the neighbouring groups of islands. The following seas and gulfs, all of them arms of the Pacific, occur along the eastern side of the Asiatic continent :---

Bering Sea.	Japan Sea. Yello w Sea.	China Sea.		
Sea of Okhotsk, or Kurile Sea.	Yellow Sea. Gulf of Pe-chi-li.	Gulf of Tonquin.		
Gulf of Tartary.	East Sea.	Gulf of Siam.		

The above are not inland seas like the Mediterranean, the Baltic, or the Red Sea. They are merely extensions of the ocean itself, partially divided from its main body by a succession of island groups. Between these islands there are numerous channels and straits, which connect the partially landlocked gulfs of the Pacific with the ocean itself, and with one another.

4 Indian Ocean, so named from its proximity to India. 5. Arctic, Gr. arkies, the bear, or the north. 6. Antarctic, Gr. anki, opposite to; arkies, the north.

^{1.} Ocean, Gr. oksanos.

^{2.} Pacific, Lat. pacificus, peaceful; so named by Magellan. 8. Atlantic, from Mount Atlas in Africa.

(2.) The Atlantic Ocean.—If the lines of the Arctic and Antarctic Circle be taken as marking the limits of the Atlantic in the direction of north and south, its meridional dimensions are the same as those of the Pacific, that is, upwards of 9,000 miles. But its proportions in the opposite direction are greatly inferior. Along the line of the northern tropic the Atlantic measures 4,500 miles across from east to west. It is there that its opposite shores are at their extreme limits apart. At the equator they are 4,200 miles asunder—a space which, great as it is, is scarcely more than a third of the measure of the Pacific under the same line. Along the 50th parallel, only 2,200 miles intervene between the shores of Britain and Newfoundland, and the distance measured along the arc of a great circle between the same points is still less. The distance between the nearest headlands of the African and South American coasts is only 1,800 miles.

The Atlantic has the shape of a long valley, winding from north to south, somewhat in the shape of the letter S, like the successive curves of a river. The direction of its coasts upon either side, between the Arctic Circle and the Tropic of Cancer, is from north-east to south-west. Thence to the equator, the direction becomes reversed—or from north-west to south-east. From the easternmost point of Brazil southward, the shores of South America resume the same direction as that of the coasts upon either side of the northern Atlantic, that is, a direction from north-east to south-west.

The Atlantic is distinguished by its *inland seas*, with their numerous gulfs and other inlets, and the consequent extreme development of coast-line which its basin exhibits. This is characteristic of both its lines of coast, but is more especially so of its eastern than of its western shores.

The inland seas which belong to the Atlantic basin are :---

- (1.) The Mediterranean,¹ which is inclusive of the Black Sea, together with the numerous gulfs and channels belonging to that region, as the Adriatic, &c.
- (2.) The Baltic Sea, which includes the Gulfs of Bothnia, Finland, and others of less size.
- (8.) Hudson Bay, which is the only true inland sea belonging to the Atlantic basin on its western side.

Adding the measure of the Mediterranean and Baltic coasts, with those of Hudson Bay, to the circuit of the outer shores of the Atlantic, the total length of the coast-line which is developed in connection with the Atlantic waters greatly exceeds the coast-line of the Pacific. The Mediterranean and its gulfs alone have a coast-circuit of more than 13,000 miles.

The Atlantic has, both on its eastern and western side, seas which resemble those of the Western Pacific in their character of partial division from its open basin by insular tracts of land. The seas that lie around the shores of Britain, on the one side, and the **Gulf of St. Lawrence**, the **Mexican Gulf**, and the **Caribbean Sea**, on the other, are the most prominent examples. Baffin Bay, though situated to the northward of the Arctic Circle, yet belongs rather to the Atlantic basin than to that of the Arctic Ocean.

A circumstance of the highest importance in connection with the Atlantic (and especially so when regarded conjointly with its extended coast-line) is the fact that most of the great lowland-plains slope towards its basin. By far the larger number of the great rivers are discharged into the Atlantic and its guifs. The Mississippi, St. Lawrence, Amazon, Orinoco, La Plata—the Rhine, Danube, Nile, Niger, and Senegal—are examples.

^{1.} Mediterranean, Lat. medius, middle; terra, land.

Soundings taken by the "Challenger," in the scientific voyage of 1873-75, indicate, in the case of the Atlantic, a *depth* of 23,250 feet in immediate proximity to the island of St. Thomas, West Indies. This exceeds by a half the height of Mont Blanc, and nearly equals the highest elevations of the Andes. Depths of 20,000 feet and upwards have been ascertained in other parts of the North Atlantic basin. A maximum depth of 15,600 feet appears to have been found in the southern portion of the Indian Ocean, to the southward of Australia. Still greater depths occur in the Pacific, where soundings, showing upwards of 27,000 feet, have been found off the coasts of Japan. It is likely that the sea-bed descends *below* the surface to a depth which is not inferior to the elevation of the highest points of the land *above* the same level.

(3.) The Indian Ocean is much smaller than either the Pacific or the Atlantic, and has a marked feature of distinction from either of them in the fact that it is limited by land to the northward. The waters of the other two great oceans stretch to the confines of the Frigid Zones in either direction, north and south alike. The Indian Ocean is bounded on the northern side by the continent of Asia, and is only open in the direction of the Antarctic Circle. Important consequences in regard to climate and other conditions in the physical geography of the globe ensue from this fact.

Under the line of the equator, the Indian Ocean measures little less than 4,000 miles across, from east to west; under the Tropic of Capricorn, this breadth is increased to upwards of 5,000 miles.

The Indian Ocean has two inland seas—the **Bed Sea** and the **Persian Gulf**. These are of much smaller dimensions than the inland seas which belong to the Atlantic basin, but they possess the true character of land-encompassed bodies of water. The **Gulf of Aden**, the **Gulfs of Cutch** and **Cambay**, the **Bay of Bengal**, and the **Gulf of Martaban**, are off-sets of the Indian Ocean, but are neither inland seas nor land-enclosed gulfs.

The waters of the Indian Ocean are connected with those of the Pacific by the channels which divide the innumerable islands of the East Indian Archipelago. The Strait of Malacca and the Strait of Sunda are the two most important of these channels, and lead directly from the Indian Ocean into the China Sea. Torres Strait, further to the eastward, forms another great channel of connection between the two oceans.¹

(4.) The Arctic Ocean—looked at either upon the artificial globe, or on a map projected upon the plane of the equator (which alone show its shape and proportions)—exhibits a circular and nearly land-enclosed basin, common to the northern coasts of Europe, Asia, and North America. It is open to the Atlantic through the broad sea which flows between the shores of Norway and Greenland,

^{1.} Neither of the three great oceans has, properly speaking, any defined limit to the southward. Their waters communicate, without interruption from land, in that direction. The Antarctic Circle is assigned, for geographical convenience, as their common line of division from the waters that lie around the southern pole. A line drawn from Cape Horn to the Antarctic Circle is, for a like reason, assigned as the common pacific and the southern set of the southern the southern basins. A similar line drawn from Cape Aguilhas southward indicates the boundary between the

South Atlantic and Indian Oceans, and themeridian which passes through the southernmost headland of Tammania is regarded as the limit between the basins of the Indian Ocean and the southern Pacific. But these lines haveno place in nature, and the term Southern Ocean is commonly applied to the belt of sea which extends (with little interruption from land) round the globe between the parallel of 35 south and the Antarctic Circle. The sea. which washes the southern shores of Australia. is thus spoken of as the Southern Ocean.

upwards of a thousand miles across. It is only connected with the Pacific by Bering Strait, which is less than sixty miles across in its narrowest part.

The principal seas and inlets which belong to the Arctic basin are :--

1. On the coast of Europe, the White Sea.

2. On the coast of Asia, the Sea of Kara, and the Gulfs of Obi and Yenisei. 3. Of the numerous gulfs, bays, straits, and channels which divide the multitude of islands that adjoin the northern and north-eastern coasts of North America, the principal are: --Baffin Bay, connected with the Atlantic by Davis Strait, and with the "Palmocrystic Sea," north of Greenland, by Smith Sound, Kennedy Channel, and Robeson Channel; the Gulf of Boothia; Coronation Gulf, Mackenzie Bay, Lancaster Sound, Barrow Strait, Melville Sound, and Banks' Strait, leading from Baffin Bay into the open sea on the west.

The Arctic Ocean and its various ice-encumbered channels supply the longsought "North-West Passage" between the Atlantic and the Pacific, by way of the northern shores of the New World. This passage, after a lapse of three centuries since it was first sought, was, in 1850, proved to exist; it is, however, useless for purposes of commerce, owing to the vast quantity of ice by which the seas of this region are encumbered, and the consequent perils (if not, as is the case in many seasons, the utter impossibility) of their navigation. Davis Strait, Baffin Bay, Lancaster Sound, Barrow Strait, Melville Sound, the Arctic Ocean, and Behring Strait, form a continuous channel of connection between the Atlantic and the Pacific. This channel, which may be readily traced out upon the map, forms the "North-West Passage."

The limits of the Arctic Ocean in the direction of the pole are unknown. The furthest distance northward to which its shores have been traced is through Smith Sound, at the northern extremity of Bafin Bay. Dr. Kane (of the United States Navy) passed two successive winters in the latitude of 78° 37' (in the years 1853-55), and followed the land further northward to the parallel of 80° 53'. In 1875, Sir George Nares succeeded in carrying the "Alert" to the northern extremity of Robeson Channel, where he wintered. In the following spring, sledge-parties were sent out, and Commander Markham, with his brave companions, reached a spot in latitude 88° 20' 26" north-the most northerly point on the globe that had then been attained. Lieutenant Lockwood, of the ill-fated Greeley expedition, reached in 1882 an island a few miles nearer the pole. Other minor expeditions (English, Dutch, American, &c.) have added to our knowledge of the Arctic regions, but the four hundred and sixty miles between Markham's and Greeley's "furthest" and the pole are as yet untraversed.

(5.) The Antarctic Ocean has been much less frequently visited than the seas that lie within the northern polar circle, and the space which it covers on the maps is for the most part a blank. Several portions of land have been seen by navigators, at distant intervals, along or near the line of the Antarctic Circle, and have been supposed to form part of an immense antarctic continent.

The most extensive region actually visited within the Antarctic Circle, however, is Victoria Land, which name was given to a line of coast discovered by Sir James Ross in 1841. Its shores stretch between the parallels of 70° and 78° south, in a direction lying nearly due southward of New Zealand. Two active volcances (the loftier of them, Mount Erebus, estimated at upwards of 12,000 feet) were visible on this dreary and snow-covered region. Sir James Ross succeeded in penetrating, amongst the ice-encumbered seas which adjoin

Obi and the Yenisei. The projected Transcontinental Railway will, however, be the main artery of communication with these vast regions of Asiatic Russia.

^{1.} The "North-East Passage," first attempted by Sir Hugh Willoughby in 1863, was successfully accomplished by Nordenzkildi in the Yage in 1878-78, and has resulted in the opening of a searoute (in summer only) between Europe and the

this distant land, as far as the latitude of 78° 4', which is the nearest approach yet made to the south pole. Important results may be expected from the recent movement in Australia and New Zealand for furthering Antarctic research.

2. Sea.—The word sea is sometimes used as an equivalent for ocean, but is more generally applied to less extensive portions of the water, situated near the land. A sea which penetrates within the land, so as to be nearly enclosed by it, is called an *Inland Sea*.

The Mediterranean is the largest of inland seas. The Red Sea, between Africa and Asia, and the Baltic Sea, in the north of Europe, are other examples.

3. Inlets, or indentations of the coast-line, are variously named according to their form and size.

A Bay is a short arm of the sea indenting the land, as the Bay of Biscay. A Bight¹ is an open bend in the line of coast, as the Bight of Biafra.

A Gulf² is a longer arm of the sea, penetrating further into the land, as the Gulf of Bothnia.

_ A gulf penetrates further into the land than a bay.

A bay penetrates further into the land than a bight.

Smaller openings or inlets, sufficiently deep and sheltered for vessels to lie in safety, and discharge and receive their cargoes, are called Havens, Harbours, or Ports.

A Creek³ or Cove is a small opening in the coast.

A Firth, Flord or Fjord, is a narrow inlet, as the Firth of Forth, Soons Fjord.

An Estuary⁴ is an inlet forming the mouth of a *tidal* river as the Estuary of the Thames.

4. Strait-Channel.-The portions of water connecting larger expanses are called Straits, Channels, or Sounds.

A Strait⁵ is a narrow arm of the sea connecting two larger portions, as the Strait of Gibraltar, which forms the entrance of the Mediterranean; the Strait of Dover, which unites the seas on the eastern and southern coasts of England ; and the Strait of Bab el Mandeb, at the entrance of the Red Sea.

A Channel^e is a broader arm of the sea, as the English Channel, between the coasts of England and France.

A Sound is a narrow arm of the sea between an island and the mainland, as the Sound between Sweden and the island of Zealand.

5. Lake.⁷—A lake is a body of inland water surrounded by land.

The lakes of Geneva and Constance, in Switzerland; Lake Ladoga, in Russia; and Lake Superior, in North America, are examples. Small lakes often occur in mountainous countries, their beds consisting of hollows or depressions in the land, in which the running waters have accumulated.

6. Channel, Lat. canalis, a water-pipe.

- 7. Lake, Int. lacus; cf. Celtic lock.

^{5.} Strait, Lat. strictus, drawn together.

^{1.} Bay, Bight, A. S. beogan, to bend. 2. Gulf, Gr. kolpos, a fold. 3. Greek, A.S. creeco, a corner. 4. Extuary, Lat. astuarium, appertaining to -bhetide.

Lakes may be thus classified :---

(1.) Lakes which receive rivers, but have no outlet.

Lakes which do not receive any rivers, but have an outlet.
 Lakes which both receive and emit rivers.

(4.) Lakes which receive no rivers, and have no outlet.

A Pond¹ is a small body of *fresh water*, and has no outlet.

A Lagoon² is a shallow lake of salt water near the sea.

6. River.³—A river is a stream of water running through the land, and generally rises in high ground and discharges its waters into the sea, sometimes passing through one or more lakes on its way. Almost every place has in its neighbourhood examples of small running streams or brooks; the junction of several such brooks, so that their waters become united in a larger channel or water-course, forms a river. The Thames, the Severn, and the Shannon, in our own islands, are among the most prominent examples of rivers ; the Danube and the Volga, on the continent of Europe, are instances on a larger scale.

The Source of a river is where it begins.

The Mouth of a river is where it ends.

The Bed of a river is the hollow along which it flows.

The Banks of a river are the margins of land between which it flows-that on the right-hand side (following the course of the stream) is called the *right* bank, that on the left, the left bank.

The Length of a river is the distance between its source and its mouth.

The Width of a river is the distance between its banks.

The Basin of a river is the whole tract of country which is watered by it and its tributaries. Thus, we say (in physical geography), the basin of the Thames, the basin of the Danube-meaning thereby the whole district through which those streams, with all their affluents, respectively flow.

A Tributary or an affluent⁴ is a small stream which joins a larger river. Thus the small river Kennet, in Berkshire, is an affluent of the Thames.

When a large river falls over a precipice it forms a Cataract.^a The fall of a small river forms a Cascade.^a When the slope of the bed of a river is steep or uneven, a Rapid is formed. An artificial water-course is called a Canal.

7. Watershed.⁷—A watershed or, more correctly, "water-parting," is the ground which divides two adjacent streams that flow in opposite directions.



This generally (but by no means always) consists of a high tract of land, sometimes of a chain of mountains; and it is, in every case, formed by

1. Fond, A.-S. pyndam, to shut in. 2. Lagoon, Iat. incume, anything hollow. 3. River, Iat. ringa, a bank. 4. Affuent, Iat. affuers, to flow to. 5. Cotarast, Gr. katerneties, a fall. 8. Casacade, Iat. codo, I fall. 7. Watershed. This term is commonly but erroneously used as if equivalent to the German

word "Wasser-Scheids," which is defined by Ritter as "the mathematical line from which the descent of rivers begins" ("Dis mathema-tische Linis, con welcher alle Pallihatigkeit der Friesse begrenst"). "Water-parting is therefore the more correct term, and should be substituted. for "waternhed."

ground which is higher than that through which the streams actually flow, for the natural tendency of water is to run down a sloping ground, from a higher to a lower level. Some rivers, however, rise in ground which is nearly level, and at only a trifling height above the sea; and, in such cases, the watershed may consist of ground which does not exhibit any marked elevation above the adjoining plain.

EXAMINATION QUESTIONS.

What is the occas, and how is it divided?
 Give a few particulars relative to each of the five great occana.
 What part of the sea is sometimes called the Southern Occas;
 Distinguish between a sec and an inland

86a.

sea.
How are the principal and lesser inlets distinguished?
Define the terms strait, channel, sound.
What is a lakes Give some examples.

How may lakes be classified?
 What is a river?
 What is meant by the source, mouth, bed, Journa, and basis of a river?
 What are streams that join larger rivers
 What are streams that join larger rivers

11. W

12. Define the terms cataract, cascade, rapid, conal. 13. What is generally meant by the term

wostershed !

POLITICAL GEOGRAPHY.

The world contains not less than 1500 millions of inhabitants, one-half of whom are in Asia, one-fifth in Europe, one-seventh in Africa, one-thirteenth in America, and about one-fortieth in Oceania.¹

This vast number of human beings is most irregularly distributed, some portions of the earth, limited in extent, being peopled by millions, while other vastly greater portions have scarcely any inhabitants.

	AREA.		POPULATION.		
Continent.	Area in Sq. Miles.	Ratio to Total Area of Globe.	Population.	Aver. Den- sity per Sq. Mile.	Ratio to Total Pop. of Globe.
Europe Asia Africa N. America . S. America . Oceania	3,800,000 16,000,000 12,000,000 9,000,000 7,000,000 4,200,000	2.0 8.2 6.1 4.6 3.6 2.2	847,000,000 789,000,000 197,000,000 80,000,000 82,000,000 88,000,000	88.7 49.3 16.0 8.8 4.5 9.0	28·4 53·3 13·3 5·4 2·1 2·6
	52,000,000	26.7	1,488,000,000	28.7	100.0

... The following is Levasseur's latest estimate :---

1. **Bace**—Although all the peoples of the earth are members of the same "human family," the natural differences in colour and feature broadly divide them into five great classes or races, viz. :-

(1.) The CAUCASIAN (Indo-European), or white race, inhabiting Europe and Western Asia, and America, Australia, New Zealand, and other countries colonised by Europeans.

(2.) The MONGOLIAN, or yellow race, occupying Northern and Eastern Asia, Japan, and also including the Magyars, Turks, Lapps, Finns, Eskimo, and Samoyedes.

(3.) The NEGRO, or black race, inhabiting the whole of Africa from the Sahara to Cape Colony.

B

^{1.} Levassour estimates the present population | Brun, in 1804, at 640,000,000; the Almansch de of the world at 1,433,000,000; Yoltaire, in 1750, esti-mated the total population at 900,000; Malten | Wagner, in 1574, at 1,551,000,000.

(4.) The MALAYAN, or brown race, inhabiting the Malay Archipelago and Polynesia, and also including the Hovas of Madagascar.

(5.) The INDIAN, or red race, includes the aboriginal natives of America, now almost entirely supplanted in North America, and to a less extent also in South America, by Europeans and Negroes.

The following is a rough estimate of the numbers belonging to each race :---

Caucasian or Indo-European	•	•	•	570,000,000
Mongolian or Turaniau	•	•	•	645,000,000
Negro				225,000,000
Malayan				40,000,000
Indian or American .	•	•	•	20,000,000
	Total			1,500,000,000

2. Language.-Besides the distinction of colour and feature which mark out the races of men. there is also the important distinction of language.

The races of mankind are thus further subdivided according to the language spoken. The difference in language broadly marks out the nations of the world. Generally speaking, the different countries are occupied by different nations speaking different languages, e.g., France, Germany, &c. But some-times peoples of different nations, and speaking different languages, are poli-tically united, e.g., Switzerland (Germans, French, Italians, &c.).

The inhabitants of the world are therefore divided according to colour and feature into races, and according to their language into nations.

There is, further, an all-important difference in the religious beliefs of mankind.

3. Religion.—The religions of the world may be broadly divided into two classes-polytheism, or belief in many gods ; and monotheism, or belief in one God.

a. Polytheism is divided into

- (1.) Brahminism, of the Hindus, and in Southern Asia.
- (2.) Buddhism, of Eastern Asia, the widest spread of all religious forms.
- Fire worship, of the Parsis of India.
 Fetishism, of the African and other savage tribes.

b. Monotheism is divided into

- (1.) Christianity, founded on both the Old and New Testaments, "the religion of liberty, of civilisation, and of charity."
 - Christianity is subdivided into
 - (a.) Protestantism, which acknowledges no other authority than the Bible, and adopts two sacraments only.
 - (b.) Roman Catholicism, of which the Pope is the head, and which admits the seven sacraments, &c.
 - (c.) The Greek Church, to which the Russians, Greeks, &c., belong.

(2.) Judaism, which receives the Old Testament only, and rejects the New.

(8.) Mohammedanism, based mainly on Judaism, but which adopts some of the Christian tenets, and rejects the doctrine of the Trinity, the sacraments, &c.

Christianity prevails throughout Europe, America, Australia, &c. Judaism is professed by the Jews. Mohammedanism prevails in South-Western Asia, North Africa, and Turkey, and is divided into two great sects, the Shiites and the Sunnites.

The following is a rough estimate	of the 1	number	s profe	ssing each religion :
(Protestants,			• .	130,000,000
Christians Roman Catholic	8,		•	175,000,000
Greek Church,	•			100,000,000
_ (Other Christian	sects,	•	•	35,000,000
Jews,	•			10,000,000
Mohammedans,			•	165,000,000
Buddhists,			•	455,000,000
Brahmins,	•	•	•	205,000,000
Heathens (Fetish worshipper	s, &c.)			165,000,000
Unknown,	•	•	•	60,000,000
	Total,		•	1,500,000,000

There is also a vast difference in the *condition* of the nations of the world, some having attained an advanced civilisation, and others remaining in the lowest stage of barbarism.

4. Government.—Nearly all the nations of the earth live under some form of government. Barbarous and savage races are generally subdivided into tribes, each despotically governed by its own chief. The more civilised nations live under a monarchical or republican form of government.

(1.) The monarchical form of government is that in which the governing power is vested in a hereditary or an elective monarch. In a *despotic monarchy* all the powers of government are vested unreservedly in the monarch. In a *limited monarchy*, the executive power only is vested in the monarch, the legislative power being vested in an elected or hereditary council or parliament.

(2.) In a republican form the whole power is virtually exercised by the people through their elected representatives; the executive power being vested in a *President* chosen for a term of years, and the legislative in an elected council or senate.

5. **Bevenue-Expenditure.**—The expenses connected with the government of a country, the maintenance of an army and navy, the administration of justice, &c., are met by the imposition of *taxes*, either directly on persons, houses, land, &c., or indirectly on articles exported, or imported, or manufactured for home consumption. The total amount thus received is called the *Revenue*; and, if insufficient to meet the *Expenditure*, additional taxes are imposed, or the deficiency is covered by money borrowed by the State. The annual statement furnished by the government of the estimated expenditure and revenue is called the *Budget*.

6. National Debt.— In times of war, the current expenditure is generally much in excess of the ordinary revenue, and, if hostilities are prolonged for a considerable time, the *National Debt* thus incurred amounts to such a sum that it cannot possibly be paid off; although in times of peace, under favourable circumstances, it may be considerably reduced. A certain portion of the annual revenue is therefore reserved to meet the charges for the "interest" and "management" of the national debt.

Nearly all the more advanced states are saddled with enormous national debts, but, with few exceptions, the interest (which, in the case of the United Kingdom, amounts to more than one-third of the annual revenue) is regularly paid. Several states pay no interest whatever, and a few have even repudiated their debts. Although generally by far the larger portion of the "national

debts" of the principal countries of the world were originally incurred in times of war, still considerable sums were borrowed from time to time to develop the national resources by the construction of railways and other important public works.

7. Industries.—The industries of a country depend not only upon its natural productions, but also upon the character of its inhabitants; thus England has become a great manufacturing country by reason of the abundance of coal, iron, and other useful minerals and metals, and the industry and energy of its inhabitants.

Agriculture, manufactures, and commerce form the chief industries of the more advanced nations, but semi-civilised and savage peoples are generally en-gaged in pastoral pursuits.

The industrial advancement of a nation is evidently dependent to a large extent on the means of intercommunication by navigable rivers, roads, canals, and railways; but real progress, both material and intellectual, is only possible when the advantages of education are widely diffused by means of schools, colleges, and universities.

EXAMINATION QUESTIONS.

1. What is the total population of the world? Give the estimated numbers for each of the continents. 2. What is the average density of population in each of the continents? 3. What are the most thickly-peopled coun-tries in the world? 4. How many varieties or races of men are there? Name them. What part of the world does each race principally inhabit? What num-bers belong to each race? 5. What distinction is generally founded on language.

language; 6. How may the "religions of the world" be broadly divided

7. Name the three principal forms of Chris-

Name the three principal forms of Christianity.
 What are the numbers belonging to the various religions?
 Under what form of government do (a) says, and (b) civilised, nutions live?
 Distinguish between the monarchical and republican forms of government.
 Explain the terms-reseaue, expenditure, budget, actional debt.
 What are the principal industries of civilised nations?
 What are the principal means of intercommunication in England?
 Head to a most important factor in the progress of any country. Prove this.

DIVISIONS OF THE EARTH.

EUROPE, ASIA, AFRICA, NORTH AMERICA, SOUTH AMERICA, AUSTRALIA, and POLYNESIA are the seven great divisions of the Six of the number, as we have already seen, are con-Earth. tinents-that is, large masses of land; the last mentioned of them, Polynesia,¹ consists of a vast number of islands, which lie within the Pacific Ocean, and are surrounded by its waters.

^{1.} Polynesia, Greek, polus nesos, many islands.

EUROPE.

EUROPE¹ lies entirely within the northern hemisphere, and forms the north-western portion of the Old World.

Europe is not a continent in the strict sense of the term as applied to a "separate and independent mass," like America or Australia, but is, in fact, an immense peninsuls jutting out from the western side of Asia, and forming with it by far the largest continuous mass of land. On the south, Europe is entirely separated from Africa by the Mediterranean, and, on the west, from North America by the Atlantic.

BOUNDABLES.—Europe is bounded on the north by the Arctic Ocean; on the west by the Atlantic Ocean; on the south by the Mediterranean Sea, the Black Sea, and the Caucasus Mountains; and on the east by the Caspian Sea, the river Ural, and the range of the Ural Mountains,

The Extreme Points of the mainland are Cape Nordkyn (71° 6' N.) on the north; Cape Tarifa (36° 1' N.) on the south; the source of the River Kara (66° E.) on the east; and Cape Roca (9° 28' W.) on the west.

EXTENT.—The greatest *length*, from Cape St. Vincent to the Ural Mountains, is 3,370 miles; the greatest *breadth*, from Cape Nordkyn to Cape Matapan, is 2,400 miles. *Area*, including the islands, 3,750,000 square miles.

Europe is therefore, next to Australia, the smallest of the continents; it being about one-fifth the size of Asia, one-fourth of America, one-third of Africa, and one-fourteenth of the total area of the land surface, or one-fiftythird part of the whole surface of the globe.

COASTS.—Very irregular, exhibiting a great many indentations, by means of which the waters of the adjoining seas penetrate far within the general line of its coast. Europe has thus a greater extent of coast-line, in proportion to its size, than is possessed by any of the other continents.

The coast-line of Europe is estimated at 19,500 miles, or 1 mile of coast to every 190 square miles of area. In Russia, no part is more than 700 miles from the sea; in all other European countries the distance is everywhere under 400 miles. The chief natural features are :--

1.—The principal inland seas, bays, and gulfs, belonging to Europe are : the Mediterranean,² Sea of Marmora, Black Sea, and Sea of Azov, on the south ; the Caspian Sea, on the south-cast; the Bay of Biscay, English Channel, Irish Sea, North Sea, Zuyder Zee, and Baltic Sea, on the west; and the White Sea,⁸ on the north.

The Mediterranean is the largest inland sea in the world, being above 2,400 miles long, and covering nearly 1,000,000 square miles. It includes the Gulfs of Lions, Genoa, Corinth, Sidra, and Kabes, and four minor seas—the Adriatic Sea (with the Gulfs of Trieste and Quarnero), Tyrrhenian Sea, Ionian

^{1.} Europe was the name first given to the land bordering on the Hellespont. Ritter is of opinion that its is derived from Apis, the Scythian name for the plains west of the Caspian.

Sea and the Archipelago.1 It is divided into two basins by a submarine ridge. extending from Sicily to Cape Bon on the opposite African coast. Its waters are salter than those of the ocean, consequently a current flows into it from the Atlantic through the Strait of Gibraltar.

The **Black Sea**² has an area of about 180,000 square miles, and receives the drainage of a third of Europe. Though deep and free from islands and rocks, its navigation is rendered dangerous by sudden and violent storms, and dense fogs, hence its name "Kara Deniz," i.e., the Black Sea. The Sea of form hence more of 20,000 course miles and is abally and partially former Azov has an area of 20,000 square miles, and is shallow and partially frozen over in winter.

The Bay of Biscay 3 is frequently disturbed by violent storms.

The North Sea. has an area of 244,000 square miles, and is comparatively shallow, especially between England and Holland. Numerous sandbanks and severe storms combine to render its navigation dangerous and difficult.

The Irish Sea between Great Britain and Ireland is comparatively deep, but subject to violent storms.

The **Baltic Sea**⁶ includes the *Gulfs of Bothnia*, *Finland*, and *Riga*, and has an area of 135,000 square miles. The Baltic is generally shallow, especially in the north, and its waters are fresher than those of the Atlantic. Both the Baltic and the Mediterranean are nearly, if not entirely, tideless.

The **Zuyder Zee** was formed by an irruption of the sea in the 13th century.

2.—The principal Channels and Straits are :—

On the west : the Skager Rack (68 miles across) and the Katterat 65 miles) form a continuous channel leading from the North Sea to The Sound (3 miles), the Great Belt (12 to 24 miles), and the Little Belt (3 mile), three straits which lead into the Baltic, between Jutland and the coast of Sweden. The Strait of Dover (21 miles) connects the North Sea with the English Channel.

On the south: the Strait of Gibraltar (8 miles) forms the entrance to the Mediterranean. The Strait of Messina (8 miles) divides the island of Sicily from the Italian Peninsula. The Dardanelles (1 mile) is a strait leading from the Archipelago into the Sea of Marmora. The Bosphorus, or Strait of Constantinople (1 mile), leads from the Sea of Marmora into the Black Sea; and the strait of Kertch, or Yenikale (4 miles), connects the Black Sea with the Sea of Azov.

The Sound, the Strait of Gibraltar, the Dardanelles, and the Bosphorus are the most important of the above. The Sound, because it forms the most the most important of the above. frequented channel of entrance to the Baltic Sea; the Strait of Gibraltar, because it is the only entrance to the Mediterranean; and the Dardanelles and Bosphorus, because they are the only channels of entrance to the Black Sea.

3.—The principal Capes are :—Cape Nordkyn, North Cape, and the Naze, in Norway; the Skaw, in Denmark; Ortegal and Finisterre, in Spain ; Roca and St. Vincent, in Portugal ; Trafalgar and Tarifa, in Spain ; Di Leuca and Spartivento, in Italy ; Matapan, in Greece.

^{1.} The ancient Egean Sea, in Greek, signises polagos, of which the modern name is a cor-ruption. The word "archipelago" has become applied as a general term to seas which, like the Greetan Archipelago (or Egean), contain & great many islands, and, by modern usage, to its island themselves. Thus, we speak of the British Archipelago, and so on. 2. Elack Sea (Turkish, Kara Denis), so called

The most northerly point of the continent of Europe is **Cape Nordkyn**. North **Cape** is on an island (Mageröe), and is 6° further north. The most westerly point is **Cape Roca** in Portugal, and the most southerly, **Cape Tarifa**, in Spain.

PENINSULAS.—Europe is distinguished by the great number of its peninsulas, the inhabitants of which enjoy naturally great advantages for maritime intercourse and traffic. It is a remarkable fact that all the larger peninsulas of Europe, except Jutland, are turned towards the south.

The principal peninsulas are :--Norway and Sweden, which together form the Scandinavian Peninsula;¹ Jutland, which forms a portion of Denmark; Spain and Portugal, or the Spanish Peninsula; Italy; the Morea, which is part of Greece; and, lastly, the Crimea, which is a part of Russia.

All these peninsulas are connected with the mainland by isthmuses, of which the most important are :--

1. The Isthmus of Corinth (4 miles across), joining the Morea to the mainland of Greece.

2. The Isthmus of Perekop (5 miles wide), uniting the Crimea to the mainland of Russia.

ISLANDS.—Europe has a great number of islands, some of them situated in the Atlantic and Arctic Oceans, others in the Baltic, and others in the Mediterranean Sea. The islands of Europe are naturally divisible into four classes, according to their position :—

1. In the Atlantic Ocean, naming them in order from north to south, are the following :--Iceland, the Farce Islands, the British Islands, the Channel Islands (off the coast of France), and the Azores⁹ or Western Islands.

2. In the Arctic Ocean are Nova Zembla, Vaigatz, Kolgouev, Jan Mayen, and the Lofoten Islands. Nova Zembla is really a very extensive group of islands, but is situated in so high and cold a latitude as to be nearly (if not quite) uninhabitable.

3. In the Baltic Sea are Zealand, Funen, and several of smaller size, which together form the Danish Archipelago, and lie at or near its entrance; with Rügen, Bornholm, Oland, Gothland, Oesel, Dago, and the group of the Aland Islands. The island of Zealand has on it Copenhagen, the capital of Denmark.

4. In the Mediterranean are Sicily, Sardinia, Corsica, Candia, and Cyprus,³ which are all of large size. Cyprus is the largest, and Sicily is second in point of magnitude. The smaller islands are Majorca, Minorca, and Iviza (which form together the Balearic Islands); Elba, off the west coast of Italy; the Lipari Islands, to the north of Sicily; Malta, south of Sicily ; the Ionian Islands, to the west and south of Greece; and the numerous islands of the Archipelago, among which Negropont, or Eubcea, is the most considerable.

The most important of the islands of Europe are the **British Islands**, which include England, Wales, Scotland, and Ireland, and which lie off the western coast of Europe, within the Atlantic Ocean. England and Wales, with Scotland, together form the island of Great Britain, which is the largest of European islands. Iceland, which also lies in the Atlantic Ocean, but much further to the northward, is the second in point of size.

1. Scandinavia was the ancient name of the	900 miles to the west of Portugal, and hence too
countries lying on the western side of the Baltic	far off to be shown upon the map of Europe.
Sea.	3. The island of Cyprus is reckoned to belong
2. The Azores lie a long way out in the ocean,	to Asia.

EXAMINATION OUESTIONS.

Note.—It is indispensably requisite that the student should constantly refer to the map; for geography is undoubtedly most rapidly learnt upon the map and by its aid. The facility—acquired by continual practice—of finding places upon the map is the indispensable condition of geo-graphical knowledge, in the only sound meaning of the term.

1. How many great divisions of the earth are there?

1. How many great divisions of the earth are there? 2. Which of them are continents? 3. Name the boundaries of Europe, (a) length, (b) broadth, (e) areas 5. Describe the coasts of Europe and the other chinants 6. Describe the coasts of Europe, and 7. Name the principal (also of Europe, and give a few particulars relative to the most im-portant of them. 8. What is the Bay of Biscay noted for? 10. What swo channels and three straits lead from the North Sea to the Baltic? 11. What strait connects the North Sea with the English Channel? 12. What forms the entrance of the Medi-terranean?

terraneen

13. What strait divides Sicily from the main-land of Italy?

I. What strait divides Sicily from the main-land of Haly? 14. Name the three straits that lead from (a)the Archipelago into the Sea of Marmora, (b)from the Sea of Marmora into the Black Sea, (b) from the Black Sea into the Sea of Azov. 13. Which are the most important straits of Europe, and wby? 16. Name the principal capes of Europe, and sy which form the most northerly, southerly, and westerly points. 17. What persistates belong to Europe? 18. Name the European islands that are strated, (a) in the Atlantic Ocean, (b) in the Arotic Ocean, (c) in the Baltic Sea, (d) in the Mediterranean. 30. Which are the most important among the ialands of Europe, and which is the largest of them.

them.

MOUNTAINS.—Europe exhibits great variety of surface. The southern parts are mountainous. The middle parts are less elevated, but may be considered as hilly. The north-western peninsula (Norway and Sweden) also contains high mountains. But the whole of eastern Europe consists of a vast plain, nearly level, or only diversified by very slight elevations.

The principal mountain-ranges of Europe, with the countries in which they are situated, are as follows :---

The Alps, on the borders of Italy, France, Switzerland, and Austria.

The Apennines, in Italy.

The Balkans and Mt. Pindus, in Turkey and Greece.

The Pyrenees, between France and Spain.

The Cantabrian and Castilian Mountains, the Sierra Morena and Sierra Nevada, in the Spanish peninsula.

The Carpathian Mountains, in the Austrian Empire, between Hungary and Galicia.

The Hars Mountains, the Black Forest Range, and the Mountains of Bohemia, in Germany.

The Cevennes, in France.

The Hardangerfield, Dovrefield, and Kiolen Mountains, in Norway and Sweden.

The Ural Mountains, in Russia, on the border of Europe and Asia.

The Cancasus Mountains, in Russis, also on the border of Europe and Asia.

The mountains of Europe may therefore be divided into four groups : viz., (1) the southern ; (2) the central and western : (3) the north-western; and (4) the eastern.

1. The Alps, the Apennines, the Balkan Mountains, the chain of Mount Pindus, the Pyrenees and the Sierra Nevada all belong to the south of Europe, and are not far distant from the shores of the Mediterranean.

(1.) The Alps are the highest mountains in Europe, and extend round the north of Italy, and divide that country from France, Switzerland, and Austria. All the upper portions of the Alps are covered with snow, which, owing to the intense cold resulting from their great elevation, never melts. The loftiest mountain among the Alps is *Mont Blanc*, on the borders of Savoy and Piedmont and within France. Mont Blanc reaches the great height of 15,784 feet (or nearly three miles) above the sea.

(2.) The **Apennines** are a chain of mountains which branch off from the Alpa, and extend through nearly the whole length of Italy. They are much less elevated than the Alps, having an *average height* of between 3,000 and 5,000 feet, and culminating in *Monie Corno*, 9,521 feet.

(3.) The Balkan Mountains (average elevation, 4,000 feet) form a chain extending from the Black Sea westward towards the Adriatic, where they become united to the eastern offsets of the Alpine system of mountains. From the Balkan Mountains a chain, called Mount Pindus, extends to the southward into Greece.

(4.) The **Pyrenees** (highest point, *Maladetta*, 11,426 feet) are a chain of mountains which divide France and Spain, and are covered with perpetual snow in their higher portions.

(5.) Many other mountains occur in the Spanish peninsula; the highest among them are the **Slerra Nevada**, near the Mediterranean coast, and which are nearly as lofty as the Pyrenees, their highest point, *Mulhacon*, being 11,660 feet above the sea.

2. The countries of middle and western Europe include the Carpathian Mountains (in the eastern part of Austria-Hungary), the mountains of Germany, and the mountains of central France. None of these are so elevated as the mountains of southern Europe.

(1.) The **Carpathians** have an average elevation of between 5,000 and 6,000 feet in their higher portions. They form nearly a semicircle, 700 miles in length, enclosing Hungary.

(2.) The Mountains of Germany have an average elevation of not more than 2,000 or 8,000 feet. The principal are the Harz, Erz, Riesen, Sudeten, and Mahrische Mountains, the Thuringerwald, Böhmerwald, and Schwarzwald, and the northern portion of the Vosges.

(8.) Of the Mountains of France the principal are the Cevennes and the Mountains of Auvergne. The Jura is between France and Switzerland, and the Vosges between France and Germany. These ranges have an average height of 2,000 to 3,000 feet.

3. The Scandinavian peninsula, in the north-west of Europe, includes a long chain of mountains lying close along the shores of the Atlantic Ocean. They are very much less elevated than the Alps, but, owing to the higher latitude in which they are situated, and the consequently greater cold of the climate, their higher portions are covered throughout the year with snow.

(1.) The Scandinavian Mountains are known as the Hardangerfield, Langfield, and Ymesfield in the south; the Dovrefield in the centre; and the Kiolen Mountains in the north. The highest point is *Galdhöppigen* (8,546 feet) in the Ymesfield.

4. The Ural Mountains, on the border of Europe and Asia, form a chain 1,200 miles in length, of an average elevation of 2,000 to 3,000 feet, except in the middle, where the average height is under 1,600 feet. The Caucasus, in the south-east, is a long and very high mountain-chain, extending between the Black and the Caspian Seas, and forming one of the natural boundaries between Europe and Asia. The highest point is *Elburz*, 18,571 feet above the sea.

VOLCANOES.—The active volcanoes' of Europe, with one exception, are situated on islands; those on the mainland are, with the exception of Vesuvius, extinct.

The principal active volcances are Hekla (5,000 feet), in Iceland ; Etna^a (10,800 feet), in Sicily ; Vesuvius³ (4,000 feet), near Naples ; and Stromboli, one of the Lipari Islands. Examples of extinct volcances are found in almost every part of Europe, e.g., the Mountains of Auvergne in France, the Westwerwald, the Eastern Pyrenees, &c.

PLAINS.—All the east of Europe is a great lowland, or plain, including nearly the whole of Russia, and also extending along the southern shores of the Baltic, and thence to the coast of the North Sea, including part of Prussia and other German States. Denmark. This vast extent of level country is so much greater and Holland. than is met with in any other part of Europe. that it may be called the Great Plain.

The other plains of Europe are the following :---

The Plain of Hungary, within the eastern part of the Austrian Empire.

The Plain of Wallachia and Bulgaria, to the north of Turkey.

The Plain of Lombardy, in the north of Italy.

The Plain of Languedoc, in the south of France.

The Plain of Bohemia, in the north-west of Austria.

The Plain of Andalusia, in the south of Spain.

BIVERS—Every part of Europe is watered by running streams, the greater number of them navigable for long distances inland. Many of them form good harbours at their mouths. In these respects, indeed, Europe is unsurpassed by any of the divisions of the globe.

The great watershed," or water-parting, of Europe may be approximately marked by a line drawn from Cape Tarifa to the Ural Mountains, just north of Mount Konjakovski. From this medial line of heights that determines the hydrography of Europe, the land slopes more or less regularly to the north-west and south-The north-western slope is nowhere of any considerable east. width; the south-eastern slope is much more extensive. The latter therefore admits of the development of *large* rivers; those of the former are inferior both in length and area of drainage. The drainage of the north-western slope flows either directly into the Arctic and Atlantic Oceans, or into the White Sea, Baltic, and North Sea; that of the south-eastern slope is discharged into the Mediterranean, Black Sea, Sea of Azov, and Caspian Sea.

Of a total area of 3,700,000 square miles, 800,000 square miles are drained directly into the Arctic and Atlantic Oceans; 200,000 into the White Sea; 800,000 into the Baltic; 300,000 into the Mediterranean; 900,000 into the Black Sea and Sea of Azov; and 700,000 into the Caspian Sea.

4. Watershed, or water-parting, strickly means the "line of heights" which divides two con-tiguous river-basins. By a great watershed meant that which broadly divides two sets of river-basins on the opposite alopes of a con-tinent. (See also p. 16).

^{1.} Volcances, Lat. valcanse, the god of fire. 2. Etaa. Last eruption 1880. Bince no. 476 it has been in eruption sitty times. 3. Vesuvias. First eruption on record in a.n. 73, when Heroulaneum and Pompeil were destroyed.

EUROPE.

The rivers of Europe may be grouped into three main systems,¹ according as they may flow directly or indirectly into the Arctic and Atlantic Oceans or into the Caspian Sea. The latter forms what is termed a "Continental" system, that is, none of its rivers are connected with the ocean either directly or indirectly.

1. The Arctic River System of Europe includes all those rivers that drain the northern slope of the continent. The principal are those

(1.) Flowing directly into the Arctic Ocean :- Petchora, 1,000 miles long.

(2.) Flowing into the White Sea :--Mezen, 480 m. ; Dwina, 700 ; Onega, 380.

2. The Atlantic River System of Europe comprises all the rivers that flow over the western and southern slopes of the continent into the Atlantic and its minor seas. The principal are those

(1.) Flowing directly into the Atlantic :-Glommen, 400 miles; Göta, 70; Loire, 600; Garonne, 350; Minho, 200; Douro, 460; Tagus, 510; Guadiana, 450; Guadalquivir, 290; Shannon, 224.

(2.) Flowing into the Baltic Sea .--Oder, 550 miles; Vistula, 630; Niemen, 500; Dwina, 500; Neva, 40; Tornea and Dal, each 350.

(3.) Flowing into the North Sea :--Elbe, 600 miles; Weser, 880; Rhine, 760; Meuse or Maas, 550; Scheldt, 250; Thames, 215; Trent, 180; Ouse, 150; Tay, 105.

(4.) Flowing into the English Channel:-Seine, 470 miles.

(5.) Flowing into the Bristol Channel :---Severn, 240 miles.

(6.) Flowing into the Mediterranean :-Jucar, 250 miles; Ebro, 420; Rhone, 530; Arno, 150; Tiber, 210; Po, 450; Adige, 250; Vardar, 200; Struma, 250; Maritza, 320.

(7.) Flowing into the Black Sea: -Danube, 1,630 miles; Dniester, 700; Dnieper, 1,200.

(8.) Flowing into the Sea of Azov :- Don, 1,100 miles; Kuban, 480.

3. The Caspian River System of Europe includes those rivers which drain central and eastern Russia and Caucasia, of which the principal are the Volga (2,200 miles), Kuma, and Terek.

If the number of the rivers of Europe that fall *directly* into the Arctic and Atlantic Oceans be compared with the number entering the Baltic, Mediterranean, Black Sea, and Caspian, it will be seen that a greater number discharge their waters into inland seas than into the open ocean. Many of them have their origin in high mountain districts, at considerable elevations above the level of the sea. This is the case with the Rhine and the Rhone, both of which rise in the snow-covered Alps. The rivers of Spain and Portugal, again, derive their waters from the high regions in the interior of the Spanish peninsula. But this is not uniformly the case with rivers, some of which (and those among the most considerable) rise in nearly level plains, and at only a trifling height above the sea. The source of the Volga is in the midst of the Great Plain, at a height of little more than 600 feet.

Sources of European Rivers.—The following derive their waters from the *Alps*.—the Rhine, Rhone, Po, and Adige. The *Apennines* contain the sources of the Tiber and the Arno. The mountains of Germany give rise to

1. The student would do well to examine a good physical map of Europe (that in the "Training College Atlas" is specially recommended, as being remarkably accurate and distinct, carefully noticing the sources of each term river and its tributaries, the courses of the main and mutual relations of the great river-basins

of Europe. The actual extent and relative proportion of land drained by the rivers in each system, may be easily seen if the extreme sources of the rivers named as belonging to each be carefully marked on the map, and connected by lines along the "line of heights" which constitutes the "water-parting" of the system. the following :--the Danube, Elbe, Oder and Weser. The Dniester and Vistula have their sources among the Carpathian Mountains. The Pyrenees contain the source of the Garonne. The other mountain chains and highlands of the Spanish peninsula give rise to the Ebro, Minho, Douro, Tagus, Guadiana, and Guadalquivir. The mountains of Central France, with the adjacent plains of that country, contain the sources of the Loire, Seine, and Meuse. The Scandinavian Mountains (Dovrefield, &c.) give rise to the Tornes, Lules, Pitea, Umea, Indals, Dal, Glommen and Göta. The river Ural rises in the Ural Mountains. The river Kuban rises in the Caucasus range. The following rivers originate in and draip the great looland plain of Europe :--the Volga, Don, Dnieper, Southern Dwina, Niemen, Northern Dwina, and Petchora.

LAKES.—The Lakes of Europe are naturally divided into three main groups—the Alpine, Scandinavian, and the Russian.

.The Alpine Lakes fringe the central mass of mountains, those on the Swiss side being connected with the Rhine and the Rhone, and those on the Italian side with the Po. Of the former, the principal are the lake of Genera (230 square miles), through which the Rhone flows, and the lakes of Constance (180), Neuchatel (93), Zurich (34), and Lucerne (40), in the basin of the Rhine. Of the Italian lakes, the largest are Garda (180 square miles), Maggiore (150), and Como (66).

The Scandinavian Lakes occur in thousands on the Swedish side of the highland region, the principal being Wener (2,000 square miles), Wetter (840), and Maelar (700); they are also numerous in Norway, where Miosen (800 square miles) is the largest.

The Russian Lakes occur mainly in the region between the White Sea and the Gulf of Finland—a region "strewn broadcast with lakes." The largest of the Russian lakes are Ladoga (6,800 square miles), Onega (3,280), Saima (2,000), Peipus (1,250), Ilmen and Bieloe (each 400 square miles), and Enara (1,200).

In Hungary, between the Danube and its tributary the Drave, lies Lake Balaton, or Platten See, with an area of 250 square miles.

The **Caspian Sea**, which lies on the borders of Europe and Asia, is really a vast lake—so great in size as to deserve the name of sea. Its water, moreover, is salt, like that of the open sea. Even small lakes, however, which, like the Caspian, have no outlet for their waters, are usually salt. But the water of lakes in general is sweet and fresh. The current which is produced by the issue of a running stream from the lower end of a lake tends to preserve this freshness. A great many lakes (indeed, the greater number) both receive and discharge a running stream.

Most of the European lakes occur in the courses of rivers, the river entering the lake at the upper end of its basin, and re-issuing at its lower extremity. The lake of Geneva, in Switzerland, offers an example of this in the case of the river Rhone, as does the lake of Constance (in the same country) in the case of the river Rhine. The Rhone enters the upper extremity of the lake of Geneva, as the Rhine does that of the lake of Constance ; and in each instance the stream re-issues from the lower end of the lake.

The lakes situated in the south of Europe occur within mountainous tracts of country, and are hence surrounded by very varied scenery—often in the highest degree beautiful. Those that belong to northern Europe lie mostly in the neighbourhood of the Baltic Sea, and are generally within level regions.

EXAMINATION QUESTIONS.

1. Name the principal mountain ranges of |

Europe. 2. In what countries are the following moun-tain chains: -- the Apennines, the Balkan Mountains, the Pyrenese, the Sherra Novada, the Carpathian Mountains, the Dovrefield, and the chain of Pindus? What are their average heights?

3. Name the principal active volcances of

Europe. 4. What and where are the Mountains of Auvergne? 5. Mark out on the map the general extent of

Auvergne: 5. Mark out on the map the general extent of the great lowland plain of Europe, naming the countries that fall within its limits. 6. Foint on the map to the following:--the plain of Lombardy, the plain of Languedoz, the plain of Hungary, and the plain of Bohemia. 7. What are the main features in the hydro-graphy of Europe? 8. What is the extent of land drained into (a) the Atlantic and Arctic Oceans, and (b) into the White Sea, Baltic Sea, Mediterranean, Black Sea, and the Caspian Sea? 8. How may the rivers of Europe be classified? 10. What rivers flow into (1) the White Sea, (2) the Arctic Ocean, (3) the Baltic Sea, (4) he Caspian Sea, and (5) the Mediterranean?

11. Which of the rivers of Europe flow into (1) the Black Sea, (2) the Sea of Azov, and (3) the North Sea?

12. What rivers flow into the English Channel?

What rivers of Europe have a direct course into the Atlantic Ocean?
 What haven the rivers of Europe rise in (1) the Alps [2] the Apennines, and (3) the mountains of Germany?

15. In what mountains do the following rivers have their origin ---the Garonne, Vistula, Tagus, Dniester, Kuban, and Ural?

16, Name the rivers that rise in the great lowiand plain of Europe. 17, Name and give the area and elevation of the principal *lakes* in (1) Russia, (3) Scan-dingvian peninsula, (3) Switzerland, (4) Italy.

and the principal takes in (1) futured, (4) Italy, and (5) Hungary. 13. What are the extent and elevation of the five principal takes belonging to the British Islands?

19. By what peculiarity are the waters of the Caspian See distinguished? 20. What distinguishing feature (as to situ-ation) is there between the lakes of southern Europe and those that belong to its more northerly latitudes?

CLIMATE.—Nearly the whole of Europe falls within the north temperate zone. The small portion lying to the northward of the Arctic Circle does not comprehend more than one-seventeenth part On the whole, therefore, the climate of of the entire continent. Europe is distinguished by its freedom from the extremes of heat and cold to which other divisions of the globe are subject.

There is, however, considerable difference between the climate experienced in the north of Europe, and that which characterises its southerly regionsbetween the cool atmosphere that is found upon the shores of the Baltic and the coasts of the Atlantic, and the warmth that belongs to the lands bordering the Mediterranean Sea. There is a gradual diminution of heat in passing from south to north, or from lower to higher latitudes. In other words, the countries of southern Europe are hot, those of middle Europe moderately warm, its more northerly regions cool, and the extreme north intensely cold. This is in accordance with the general laws by which climate is regulated.

1. The hottest parts of the globe are those to which the sun is vertical.¹ and the amount of heat which the sun's rays communicate becomes gradually lessened as they are received in a direction which is more and more slantwise, or oblique.

Hence the greater heat of countries which are situated within the tropics, and which receive the burning rays of the mid-day sun from directly over-head. With every successive parallel of latitude in the temperate zones, the angle at which the rays of the mid-day sun meet the earth becomes further removed from the perpendicular, and the cold is proportionately increased.

1. It is only within the torrid zone that the south of the equator, of the sun's apparent yearly-sun is ever perfectly vertical. The tropics, it is the heavens.

2. But the amount of solar heat also varies greatly with the situation of the sun to the north or to the south of the equatorthat is, with the sun's declination.¹

At the period of our midsummer, the mid-day sun reaches a much higher place in the heavens than at the opposite season of the year; and hence his rays give to us a greater amount of heat. The sun's declination-which is always marked by his meridian (or mid-day) place in the sky-varies from day to day, reaching its extremes with the sun's passage from the northern to the southern tropic, or from our mid-summer to our mid-winter. So also does the number of hours during which the sun is above or below the horizon -that is, the respective length of day and night-vary from day to day. At all places in the northern hemisphere, the longest day is when the sun has reached his extreme northern declination, or is over the tropic of Cancer; and the shortest day occurs when the sun is at the opposite extreme of south declination. Precisely the reverse is the case in the southern half of the globe. There, the tropic of Capricorn is the summer, and the tropic of Cancer the winter, tropic.

3. During the intervals of the sun's passage between the summer and winter tropics, the respective length of the days and nights undergoes a progressive change, and this change is more marked in high than in low latitudes-that is, it becomes greater as we recede further from the neighbourhood of the equator towards the poles.

While the sun is passing from the tropic of Cancer towards the southern hemisphere, the days (that is, the hours of daylight, or the period during which the sun is above the horizon),² are decreasing in length at all places within the northern half of the globe, and the nights (or hours of darkness) are increasing in duration. With the returning course of the sun from the line of the winter tropic toward the northern sky, the days (at places within the northern hemisphere) continually increase in length, and the hours of darkness undergo a corresponding decrease.

4. The long days and short nights of the northern summer, and the reverse conditions (long nights and short days) of the opposite season, are a material element in the climates of European countries, but are of less importance in the extreme south of Europe than in its higher latitudes, for *there* the difference between the extreme length of the long days of summer and the short days of winter is much less than it is further north.

This difference becomes greater with each succeeding degree of latitude. At Naples or at Lisbon the difference between the length of the longest and shortest days is not more than 6 hours; at London it amounts to nearly 9 hours. In the Shetland Islands the difference becomes increased to nearly 13 hours; and the same at Stockholm and St. Petersburg, which are nearly in the same latitude as the Shetland Islands. Still further north, under the line of the Arctic Circle, the longest day and the longest night are each of Beyond the Arctic Circle the difference becomes exactly 24 hours' duration. vet greater, the summer sun remaining continuously above the horizon for a

^{1.} Declination is the angular distance of the sun's place in the heavens from the line of the equator, and is expressed (like latitude) in digrees, minutes, and seconda. It corresponds, in astronomy, to the word latitude in reference solar declination is 23; degrees (or more exactly, 25% 28%), succe, when the sun has reached that distance upon either limit of the forrid sone, he indistance upon either limit of the torrid sone, he equator and the opposite tropic. At its ex-

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period of several successive days, while during the winter the sun does not become visible (remaining beneath the horizon) for a correspondent time. Summer in these high latitudes embraces therefore a brief period of continuous daylight, while the opposite season includes a period of corresponding darkness.

5. During the whole time that the sun is above the horizon at any place, his rays communicate heat to the earth.

(1.) In the south of Europe, where (so far as this portion of the globe is concerned) there is least difference between the length of the days and nights throughout the year, the solar heat is more equally distributed, and the difference between the summer and winter temperatures is accordingly less marked than is the case further north.

(2.) In the middle of Europe it gradually becomes more considerable, and the opposite seasons of summer and winter present more striking contrasts of heat and cold. The intervening seasons of spring and autumn, however, make the transition from the one extreme to the other gradual, and indeed, measured merely from day to day, almost imperceptible.

measured merely from day to day, almost imperceptible. (3.) In the north of Europe, the summer becomes a brief period of great heat (due to the long-continued presence of the sun above the horizon), the winter a prolonged and more definitely marked season of cold. The intervening seasons—spring and autumn—are periods of more rapid transition from heat to cold, or the reverse; as the long days of summer approach, the heat rapidly increases, and the icy covering of the ground gives place with startling repidity to the verdure which accompanies the warmth of prolonged sunshine. Summer as quickly passes, with returning periods of lengthening darkness, into the gloom of an Arctic winter.

(a.) The south of Europe is thus a region of comparatively equable temperature, with seasons which are less distinguished by the heat and cold of summer and winter, or the intervening terms of spring and autumn, than by the alternate recurrence of periods of rain and drought.

(b.) The countries of *middle and western Europe* enjoy a climate in which the summer and winter are marked by greater contrasts of heat and cold than is the case further south, but in which the spring and autumn constitute seasons of gradual transition, and soften the passage from the one extreme to the other.

(c.) The countries of northern (and also of eastern) Europe exhibit, between their summer and winter, differences which are yet more strongly contrasted. Spring and autumn are there of brief duration; towards the extreme north, indeed, they can hardly be said to exist. The year is divided into a short summer and a long winter. The former is, for a brief time, a period of great heat, as the latter is one of intense cold. The extremes of difference increase with the latitude, until, beyond the Arctic Circle, the year consists of a long winter night, alternating with a short season of continuous daylight and intense heat.

6. The proximity of the ocean has a powerful effect upon climate.

(1.) Thus the countries of *Western Europe* enjoy conditions of climate which possess many advantages over those belonging to the east of Europe in similar latitudes. They have a more equable distribution of heat throughout the year. That is, they enjoy milder summers and more temperate winters than is the case in Eastern Europe. This is a consequence of their position relatively to the Atlantic Ocean.

The effect produced by large bodies of water upon climate is always to equalise it. Water preserves, under all circumstances, a more equable temperature than land. The sea never becomes so hot, under the influence of mid-day heat, as the land does; and, when the heating influence is withdrawn (as at night), it never becomes so cold. In like manner, the heat of summer and the cold of winter produce less extreme effects upon the waters of the ocean than they do upon the large expanses of land which belong to either continent. Countries situated near the ocean share in the advantages of this more equable distribution of the solar heat. The vapours that float over the Atlantic Ocean communicate their moderate warmth (and also their moisture) to the atmosphere of the adjacent lands. The generally mild winters of the British Islands, and also those of the Norwegian coast, are due to this cause.

(2.) The eastern parts of Europe, on the other hand, are far removed from oceanic influences, and are, moreover, open and unsheltered. No mountain chains protect them from the piercing colds of northerly winds. Hence their summer is one of intense heat, and their winter a season of still intenser cold. Moscow and Edinburgh are situated in nearly the same latitude, but they possess widely different climates.

7. The comparative elevation of the ground has a great deal to do with climate, for, as we rise above the average level of the earth's surface, the air becomes progressively colder.

This is found on climbing to the top of any hill, or even in reaching the higher portions of any moderately-elevated land. The tops of very high mountains are nearly always covered with unmelting snow—a consequence of the excessive cold of the air in those elevated regions. The higher portions of mountainous countries are therefore exposed to greater cold than their lower plains. High plateaux, or table-lands, for a like reason, are subject to extremes of temperature.

8. The climates of countries upon opposite sides of the same mountain chain are often widely different.

The Alps, in the south of Europe, are an example. Their slope, on the side of Switzerland, is to the northward; upon that of Italy, to the southward. They serve in some degree to shelter Italy from the cold winds of the north.

Rainfall.—A greater quantity of *rain* falls in the south of Europe than in its middle portions, and more in its middle latitudes than further north.

Warm countries, in general, have more rain than cold countries. More rain fails also in the west of Europe than in the east-a consequence of its proximity to the Atlantic Ocean, the winds blowing from which are abundantly charged with moisture. Along the whole western side of Europe (including the British Islands), westerly winds are generally accompanied by rain, while easterly winds-blowing from over large tracts of land-are dry.¹

The average number of days in the year upon which rain occurs is fewest in the south of Europe, and increases towards the north. There are more rainy days in the year in the west of Europe than in any other portion of its extent, and there is also a more generally moist atmosphere.

Countries near large bodies of water are hence more likely to possess a moist atmosphere than countries lying far inland. The winds carry the moist vapours of the ses over the adjacent lands, where they become condensed, and are discharged in the form of rain.

^{1.} All the moisture contained in the air, and precipitated upon the earth in the form of rain, hall, snow, so, is originally derived (by the process called exponsion, that is, the conversion of water or any fluid into vapour) from the set, or else from surfaces of inland water.

EUROPE.

NATURAL PRODUCTIONS.—The natural productions of the earth form three great classes—mineral, vegetable, and animal.

1. To the first belong the different metals (gold, silver. copper, iron, &c.), and the various mineral substances, including coal, salt, the various earths, as well as marbles, building-stones, and slates.

2. The second class includes all the productions of the vegetable world, from the largest trees of the forest to flowers and plants of the minutest size, as mosses and lichens.

3. The third embraces the infinite varieties of animal life—the inhabitants of the land, sea, and air alike.

In the last division, the lowest place is occupied by the insect world; next in order come fishes, and then, successively, reptiles, birds, and the various land animals, the highest of all being man himself.

It is the characteristic of Europe to possess among its natural productions an unusually large proportion of such minerals, plants, and members of the animal kingdom as are most useful to civilised man. Some of the plants and animals that are now abundant in Europe have been brought from other parts of the globe, but a large proportion are native to its soil. Other divisions of the earth possess in greater quantity the precious metals, display a vastly richer abundance of fruits and flowers, with trees of more luxuriant growth and forests of wider expanse; or are richer in the various tenants of the wilderness and the air, in the size and powers of their wild animals, and the brilliant plumage of the feathered tribes. But no other part of the earth equals Europe in the abundant possession of what is most capable of supplying, with the due exercise of industry, the wants of civilised man.

I. Minerals.—Europe is richly supplied with the more useful minerals and metals—coal, iron, &c.—and also produces considerable quantities of the precious metals.

Coal is most abundant in Great Britain and Belgium, and large quantities are also produced in France, Germany, Austria, and Russia.

Iron is found in most European countries, but is produced in larger quantities in Great Britain than in all the other countries—Belgium, France, Germany, Sweden, Austria, &c.—taken together.

salt is obtained from *mines* in Austria, and from *brine-springs* and *mines* of rock salt in England, and by *evaporation* on the coasts of France, Italy, Spain and Portugal, &c.

Copper, lead, tin, zinc, and other metals and minerals are found in various parts of Europe. Of the precious metals, gold is found in the Ural Mountains in Russia, and in Hungary; and silver in Germany, Austria, Italy, and Scandinavia.

II. Plants.—All the food-plants that are characteristic of the temperate zone thrive in this division of the globe.

1. Wheat, barley, rye, oats, are grown abundantly over the larger portion of Europe, and maize (or Indian corn) in the more southerly division of the continent.

2. Among fruits, the apple, pear, plum, cherry, currant, and gooseberry belong to the middle latitudes of Europe; the vine to its more southwardly regions; the orange, lemon, citron, and fig to the shores of the Mediterranean.

3. Of trees, the countries lying to the south of the Alps and the Pyrenees are distinguished by the abundance of evergreens; while the forest-growth of middle and northern Europe is chiefly deciduous,¹ embracing such trees as the oak, ash, beech, elm, larch, willow, alder, maple, sycamore, and the various pines and fire.

III. Animals.—The animals of Europe may be divided into six great classes as follows :—

1. Wild Animals.—Many of the wild animals which were once native to Europe have disappeared, while others have greatly diminished in number.

The wild boar and the bear, as well as the wolf, were formerly common in the forests of the British Islands, but have been wholly exterminated thence. The forests of Germany, and the wooded tracts that skirt the Alps and the Pyrenees, still harbour, however, the two former; and the wolf is yet abundant in many parts of the continent, as in the forests of Russia, France, and Germany. The wild ox still exists in the forests of Russia. The red-deer, the fallow-deer, and others of the same tribe, belong to the lower latitudes of middle Europe. The chamois and the *ibex* (animals of the goat kind) are native to the high mountain-region of the Alps, but they have become scarce under the continued pursuit of the hunter, and the latter of these two animals is almost extinct.

2. Domestic Animals.—The vast number of domestic cattle that are reared in Europe—either as the food of man, or for various other uses—is the most striking feature in the zoology of Europe.

The sheep, ox, pig, and goat, the horse, ass, and dog, abound in every part of Europe; most of them are, indeed, the uniform companions of man, wheresoever his wanderings extend. The *reindeer* supplies to the inhabitants of the extreme north of Europe (Lapland) the place of other domestic quadrupeds.

3. Birds.—The variety of birds is great in nearly every European country, except the extreme north.

The web-footed tribes (geese, ducks, &c.) are most numerous in high latitudes. The stork, the crane, the heron, the pelican, the spoonbill, and the flamingo, belong to the west and the south of Europe. The vulture and eagle tribe are most numerous in the high mountain-region of the south that is, the Alps and Pyrenees. The owl is found in nearly every part of the continent.

4. **Reptiles**.—Europe is singularly free from venomous reptiles.

Lizards are common in the countries that border on the Mediterranean, but are perfectly harmless. The *chameleon* is found in Spain.

5. Fish.—Fish of nearly every variety abound in the seas and rivers of Europe, and many of them are extensively used as food of man.

The fisheries of the Mediterranean, Black, Baltic, and Caspian Seas

^{1.} Deciduous trees are those which cast their leaves annually (from the Latin deciders, to fall).

EUROPE.

are all highly valuable. The *tunny*, which is the largest of edible fish, is found in the Mediterranean.

The seas that surround the British Islands contain a vast abundance of such fish as the cod, herring, mackerel, turbot, and pilchard, besides the crab, lobster, prawn, and many others. The salmon abounds in the rivers of northern and western Europe, as it also does in the Volga and other streams of eastern Russia.

6. Insects.—Of insects, the kinds that are annoying and hurtful to man are, happily, comparatively scarce in this portion of the globe.

The most useful member of the insect tribe—the common honey-bee—is reared in most European countries. The silkworm is numerously reared in the south of Europe—in Italy, Spain, Switzerland, and the south of France. The scorpion is found in the south of Europe. The insects which are familiarly known as occurring in our own country (and which are more or less common throughout the globe), as *flies*, &c., do not require to be specially mentioned.

INHABITANTS.—The population of Europe—amounting to a total of about 350,000,000¹—consists, for the most part, of what is known distinctively as the *Caucasian*, *Indo-Germanic*, or *Aryan* race. Nine-tenths of the whole belong to this stock of nations.

There are differences amongst them, the result of diversity of climate, and perhaps of other causes. The nations of southern Europe—the Spaniards, Portuguese, Italians, and Greeks—are distinguished by their darker skin and their generally slender frame, from the people who are native to the middle and northerly portions of the continent. Robust frames, fair complexions, light eyes and hair, are among the distinguishing marks of the people of Middle and Northern Europe.

Four leading divisions of the Caucasian family are marked—the Celtic, the Germanic or Teutonic, the Romanic or Greek-Latin, and the Slavonian.

1. The **Celtic race** is now almost limited (as a pure race) to Wales, Ireland, the Highlands of Scotland, and Brittany. The Celtic peoples formerly inhabited the whole of Western Europe from Spain to Denmark, but were gradually superseded by the Germanic or Teutonic people.

2. The Germanic or Teutonic race is spread over the middle, northwestern, and many of the western countries of Europe, and form the predominant people in Germany, Norway, Sweden, Denmark, Holland, Belgium, and Great Britain.

3. The Romanic or Greek-Latin race is not by any means as pure as any of the other races, and is probably an admixture of the aboriginal Celtic race, with Roman and German invaders. The Romanic group occupies Spain, Portugal, France (except Brittany), Italy, Roumania, and Greece.

4. The **Slavonic race** occupies nearly all eastern Europe, predominating in Russia, Poland, Bohemia, Servia, and Bulgaria.

1. The density of population in the different countries of Europe depends not so much on a natural capacity (by reason of fertile soil and genial climate) of supporting a large population, as on the energy and industry of the inhabitanta. Thus some countries, like Turkey, Bpain, &c., aithough naturally fertile and capable of sup-

porting a dense population, are yet inferior, as regards density of population, to other countries like Holland, Belgium, and parts of England and Germany, which are not naturally fertile. The absolute and average population of each country in Europe is shown in the table on p. 37. Besides the above races, to which most of the peoples of Europe belong, there are several minor branches of the **Mongolian race**, the principal being the *Turks* in Turkey, the *Magyars* in Hungary, the *Finns* and *Laplanders* in the north of Europe, the *Samoyeles* along the northeastern shores of the continent, and the *Kalmucks* in the Steppes of south-east Russia.

Two other distinct nations, the Jews and the Gipsies, are found scattered all over Europe. The *Jews* are of the Caucasian race, and in the Middle Ages were cruelly persecuted in almost every country in Europe, except Poland. Much ill-will against the Jews still exists, and within recent years it has given rise to disgraceful persecutions in Russia, Roumania, and Germany. The *Gipsies* are a wandering race; their origin is unknown.

LANGUAGE.—The languages of Europe, with the exception of the Turkish and other Turanian dialects, belong to the *Aryan* or *Indo-European* family, and may be classed under four principal headings, broadly corresponding with the four great races of the continent, viz., the Celtic, the Teutonic, the Latin or Greek-Latin, and the Slavonic.

1. Dialects of the *Celtic* language are still spoken in the west of Ireland, the north and west of Scotland, Isle of Man, Wales, and Brittany.

2. The Teutonic family comprises the English, Lowland Scotch, Norwegian, Swedish, Danish, Dutch, and German languages.

3. The Greek-Latin or Romanic languages are spoken in France, Spain, Portugal, Italy, Roumania, and Greece.

4. The Slavonic language is spoken in Russia, Servia, Bulgaria, Bohemia, Moravia, and Poland.

RELIGION.—Nearly all the nations of Europe profess Christianity, in one or other of its three forms. The Protestants predominate in the Teutonic countries; Roman Catholics in the Romanic countries, except Greece; and the Greek Church in the Slavonic countries and Greece. The Turks profess *Mohammedanism*, while the Samoyedes and Lapps are *heathens*. The orthodox Jews profess *Judaism*, the Russian and Galician Jews are sunk in superstition, while many American Jews are advanced agnostics.

*** Of the 350 millions of Europeans, 150 millions are Roman Catholics, 80 millions belong to the Greek Church, 75 millions are Protestants, while 10 millions are Mohammedans or heathens, and 7 millions are Jews, 'Gipsies, &c.

EDUCATION.—All the great nations of Europe are more or less advanced in education, and the higher classes of even the most deficient in national culture are generally well educated. Schools, colleges, and universities are found in every European State, and are well attended.

As regards general education, the Germanic peoples rank first, the Romanic nations second, while the mass of the Slavonic peoples are almost totally illiterate. The average number of the population unable to read and write in the various countries is estimated to be—in England, 20; France, 35; Italy, 64; Hungary, 85; and Russia, 88 per cent.

GOVERNMENT.—The government of every State in Europe, except France and Switzerland, is *monarchical* in form, and is *despotic*

^{1.} There are probably over 8,000,000 Jews in the Germany, 500,000; Roumania, 280,000; Turkey, world, nearly 7,000,000 of whom are in Europe 100,000; Holland, 80,000; Prance, 76,000; Eng-Russia, 4,000,000; Austria-Hungary, 1,000,000; Ialad, 65,000; Ialad, 65,00

in Russia and Turkey, but *limited* in the United Kingdom and other countries. France and Switzerland (and the small States of San Marino and Andorra) are *republics*.

POLITICAL DIVISIONS.—Europe is *politically* divided into Four Empires: Russia, Germany, Austria-Hungary, and Turkey.

- Eleven Kingdoms: Great Britain and Ireland, Sweden and Norway, Denmark, Holland, Belgium, Portugal, Spain, Italy, Greece, Roumania, and Servia.
- Two Republics: France and Switzerland (and the minor protected republics of San Marino and Andorra).
- Four Principalities: Montenegro, and the minor principalities of Luxemburg, Monaco, and Liechtenstein.

The countries of Europe may be also arranged according to their "rank" or power in the following order :—

- 1. Great Britain, Germany, France, Austria-Hungary, Russia, and Italy. These are the "Six Great Powers" of Europe.
- 2. Sweden and Norway, Spain.
- Turkey, Belgium, Holland, Denmark, Portugal, Switzerland, Greece, Roumania, Servia, and Montenegro.

The following is a list of the principal countries of Europe, together with their area and population :---

Countries.	Area in sq. miles.	Population.	Density per sq. m.
Great Britain and Ireland .	120,000	38,000,000	316
France	204,000	38,200,000	187
Belgium	11,370	6,093,000	535
Holland	12,640	4,550,000	360
Switzerland	15,980	2,917,000	183
German Empire	211,000	46,855,000	221
Austria-Hungary	240,900	41,171,000	171
Denmark	14,000	2,185,000	155
Norway	123,000	2,000,000	16
Sweden	170,980	4,774,000	28
Russia	2,095,000	95,870,000	45
Turkey	63,850	4,790,000	75
Montenegro	3,480	220,000	63
Servia	19,000	2,096,000	110
Roumania	48,000	5,550,000	115
Greece	25,000	2,187,000	87
Italy	114,400	30,947,000	270
Spain	197,670	17,550,000	88
Portugal	34,000	4,708,000	137

••• The area and population are given in round | last column in black type shows the density, or numbers according to the latest returns. The | average number, of inhabitants per square mile.

EXAMINATION QUESTIONS.

1. What is the distinguishing characteristic | of the climate of Europe !

Compare the kinds of climate experienced in the south, middle, and north of Europe.
 Why are countries within the tropics hotter than other parts of the world?

4. Within what some does the greater part of Europe fall?

5. Why do countries receive less direct heat from the sun in proportion as they are further removed from the equator?

6. What is meant by the sun's declination *i* and how does it affect the respective lengths of the days and nights in either hemisphere.

7. In what way does this affect the climate of the countries of northern Europe?

In what portion of Europe is the transition between the different seasons (a) most gradual, (b) most strongly marked?
 What are the chief differences that belong to the countries of (a) southern Europe, (b) western Europe, and (c) those situated towards its eastern limits?

accused towards its eastern limits? 10. Erplain the kind of influence which the sesgenerally exerts upon climata. 11. Moseow and Edinburgh are two cities situated at nearly the same distance from the equator, but they posses very different climates. How do you account for this?

12. In what way do mountain chains and plateaux affect climate?

13. Switzerland and Italy-which lie respec-tively to the north and south of the Alps-have very different climates. How do you account for this?

14. In what parts of Europe is rain most abundant?

15. What three great classes of objects do the natural productions of the earth include?

16. By what characteristic is Europe distin-guished in regard to its natural productions?

17. In what countries of Europe do the follow-ing metals occur :- gold, silver, and iron !

18. In what countries of Europe do coal and salt occur?

19. Among the various food-plants, name some

of the grains that are most abundantly cultivated in Europe.

20. Of fruits, name those that characterise (a) its middle latitudes, and (b) its southern regions.

E. What is the difference between the trees that belong to the countries situated on the Mediterraneen above, and those that are native to middle and northern Europe?

22. What wild gainals, formerly native to be British Islands, have been exterminated 1 800

23. In what countries of Europe is the wolf still found?

24. Name the domestic animals of Europe

25. In what part of Europe are the reindeer, chamois, and ibez found?

95. Name some of the birds that are charac-teristic of Europe, and say to what regions they more particularly belong.

27. The *fakes* that are found in the seas and rivers of Europe are of great commercial value. Name some of those that are found in the British

22. Of insects, there are two which are exten-sively reared in Europe, and which serve valu-able purposes to man. What are they? 32. To what (in round numbers) does the population of Europe amount?

50. To what race of mankind does the majority of the inhabitants of Europe belong?

81. What distinction (in external appearance) is there between the nations of southern Europe, and those of its middle and northerly regions?

32. Name the four great divisions of the European family of nations and the countries they occupy ?

53. Compare the countries of Europe in regard to density of population.

34. Classify the languages spoken in Europe.

85. What forms of religion prevail in Europe?

36. Mention some particulars relative to (a) ducation, and (b) government of European States

37. Write of Europe. Write out a complete list of the countries

THE BRITISH ISLES.

THE BRITISH ISLES consist of Great Britain, Ireland, and numerous smaller adjacent islands, situated in the Atlantic Ocean, off the western side of the European continent.

1. Great Britain consists of England, Wales, and Scotland, and is the largest island in Europe, being 600 miles in length, and having an area of nearly 89.000 square miles.

2. Ireland lies to the west of Great Britain, and is divided from it by the Irish Sea. Great Britain is nearly three times the size of Ireland, the area of which is 32,500 square miles.

3. Of the numerous islands and islets adjoining Great Britain and Ireland

the principal are the Isle of Wight, on the south; the Orkney and Shetland Islands, on the north; the Hebrides, off the west coast of Scotland; Anglesey and the Isle of Man. in the Irish Sea; and Achil Island and the Aran Islands, off the west coast of Ireland.

England, Wales, Scotland, Ireland, and the adjacent islands. constitute politically the United Kingdom of Great Britain and Ireland.

Wales, Scotland, and Ireland were formerly distinct countries from England. The conquest of Ireland commenced in 1170, and virtually ended when Limerick was surrendered in 1691. Wales was conquered in 1282, and for-mally annexed in 1536. The crowns of England and Scotland were united in 1603; in 1707 England and Scotland were united under the same Parliament; and in 1801 the Parliaments of Great Britain and Ireland were united. hence the name, "The United Kingdom of Great Britain and Ireland."

The United Kingdom of Great Britain and Ireland, and its numerous colonies and foreign possessions in all parts of the world. together form the British Empire.

The area of the British Empire is upwards of 11,000,000 square miles, or about one-sixth of all the land of the globe, while the *population* numbers 866,000,000, or about one-fifth of the total inhabitants of the world. Our Indian Empire alone has a population of more than 286,000,000. The exten-sion and consolidation of the British Empire is without a parallel in the history of the world. Inferior to the Chinese Empire¹ as regards population, and about equal to that of Russia in extent, it is vastly superior to both in wealth, influence, and power.

ENGLAND AND WALES.

ENGLAND² AND WALES, which together form the southern division of Great Britain, constitute by far the most important portion of the British Islands.

Although, in times long past, Wales was a distinct country from England, yet the two are now so inseparably connected, and have been so long under the same government, that it is most convenient to describe them under one head, and to speak of them as a single country.

England makes nearer approach to the mainland of Europe than any other portion of the British Islands. The Strait of Dover, which divides the shores of England from those of France, is only twenty-one miles across.

BOUNDARIES.—England is bounded on the north by Scotland; on the east by the North Sea,^{*}; on the south by the English Channel ;⁴ on the west by the Irish Sea,⁵ the Principality of Wales, and the Atlantic Ocean.

Estimated population, 400 millions.
 England, i.e., Angle-Gord, the land of the "Angles," the most numerous of the Saxon in-vaders of Britain. Anciently Albion, so called from the while clifts of Kent. Of. the "Alps."
 The North Sea is 700 milles long, 430 milles in its greatest breadth, and has an area of 270,000 square miles. It is deep in the north between Eogland and Norway, but shallow between England and Holland. There are numerous shoals and sandbanks, the largest being the *Loopper Bark*, 300 miles long. Between the Kentish coast and the Goodwin Sands is the

readstead called the "Downs." Various kinds of fish, ood, herring, mackerel, &c., are abundant, and the fiberies are extremely valuable. 4. In the English Channel (Fr. La Moncke) the depth increases from 200 feet off Beachy Head to 300 off Land's End. The tidal wave increases in height as it proceeds eastwards, being 16 feet at Plymouth, 21 at Brighton, and sometimes 60 in the Bay of Sk. Malo on the French coast. 6. Brish Sea, depth between 200 and 400 feet. communication, and the south by Fit. George's Channel. Greatest treadth, 130 miles.

WALES is enclosed on three sides-the north, west, and south-by the Irish Sea, St. George's Channel,¹ and the Bristol Channel; on the *east* it adjoins England.

England is divided from

Scotland by the Tweed, the Cheviot Hills, and the Solway Firth. Ireland by the Irish Sea and St. George's Channel. France by the English Channel and the Strait of Dover. Belgium, Holland, and Germany by the North Sea.

EXTENT.-England embraces an area of 50,823 square miles, and Wales, 7.363. Total area, 58, 186 square miles. Taken together, England and Wales are but a small country, equal in magnitude to scarcely more than a nine-hundredth part of the lands upon the earth's surface.

The greatest length of England, from Berwick to the Lizard, is 423 miles. The mean length, along the meridian of 2° West, is 360 miles.

The greatest breadth, from Lowestoft Ness to Land's End, is 364 miles.

The least breadth, from the Tyne to the Solway Firth. is 60 miles.

The average breadth south of the Wash is 200 miles ; north, 120 miles.

England is triangular in shape, the south coast being the base and Berwick-on-Tweed the apex.

COASTS.—The western coasts of England are more irregular and elevated, and exhibit a greater number of capes and inlets, than either the southern or the eastern coasts.²

A glance at the map of England will show the contrast between the irregular outline of the west coast and the rounded "flowing" form of the east coast. About a third of the former and a half of the latter consist of cliffs, which are most elevated in Cornwall and Wales. Where the coast is low. it is generally sandy.

1. Capes.—On the east, Flamborough * Head, Spurn Head, Lowestoft Ness, the Naze, and the North Foreland. On the south, the South Fore-land, Dungeness, * Beachy Head, * Selsea Bill, St. Catherine's Point, the Needles, St. Alban's Head, Portland Bill, Start Point, Bolt Head, and the Lizard. On the west, the Land's End, Hartland Point, Worms Head, St. David's Head, Great Orme's Head, Point of Aire, Formby Point, and St. Bees Head.

Flamborough Head, on the Yorkshire coast, is 214 feet high.

From the South Foreland (375 feet) the French coast may be seen.

Beachy Head (564 feet) is the loftiest headland on the south coast.

Great Orme's Head (673 feet) is by far the loftiest in England and Wales.

Lowestoft Ness (119 feet) is the most easterly point of England. The Lizard' is the most southerly, and Land's End the most westerly, point : both are in the county of Cornwall.

^{1.} St. George's Ohannel-50 miles wide between Carneore Point and St. David Head. 2. The western and south-western coasts posses several magnificent natural harbours. The south-seatern and eastern coasts are rather deficient in this respect. 3. Flamborough, probably a "tower or camp of refuge," from A. S. faam, a fugitive; or from the fames or beacon-fires formerly lit on this headiand.

^{4.} Dungeness, danger-ness, so called from the numerous shipwrecks off this point; ness = ness or headland 5. Beachy Head, corrupted form of Fr. beau-

a Beschy nead, corrupted form of Fr. osac-chaf. 6 Great Orme's Head, probably after the Saxon chief's name Worm or Orm, lit a sea-

serpent. 7. Lizard, Celtic ard, a height; the high cape

or fort.

2. Inlets.—On the east coast, the Humber, the Wash, and the mouth of the Thames. On the south coast, the Humber, the Wash, and the mouth of the Thames. On the south coast, Portsmouth Harbour, Southampton Water, Weymouth Bay, Tor Bay, Plymouth Sound, Falmouth Harbour, and Mount's Bay. On the west coast, the Solway Firth, Morecambe Bay, Cardigan Bay, Milford Haven, and the Bristol Channel, which last includes Carmarthen Bay, Swansea Bay, and Barnstaple Bay.

(1.) The Humber, 38 miles in length, is the estuary' of the Ouse and Trent, and is navigable for the largest vessels to Hull.

(2.) The Wash receives the drainage of the "Fen" country, and is shallow throughout.

(3.) Portsmouth Harbour is one of the finest harbours in the world.

(4.) Plymouth Sound is protected by an artificial breakwater a mile long.

(5.) In the Bristol Channel the tide advances rapidly, and rushes up the estuary of the Severn as a "bore" or head of water, rising at Chepstow to a height of 45 feet.

(6.) Milford Haven is the finest natural harbour in England, and is capable of holding all the British navy at one time.

(7.) The **Solway Firth** is noted for its valuable salmon fisheries.

3. Straits and Roadsteads.²—On the east, Yarmouth Roads, the Downs, Strait of Dover. On the south, Spithead, ³ Solent, and Portland Roads. On the west, the Menai Strait,

(1.) The Downs, between the Goodwin Sands and the Kentish coast, form the largest natural "harbour of refuge" in the world.

(2.) Spithead and the Solent are the eastern and western portions of the channel that separates the Isle of Wight from the mainland.

(3.) The Menai Strait, between Anglesey and Carnarvonshire, is crossed by a suspension bridge and a tubular railway bridge.

ISLANDS.-The principal are :-Holy Island, Farne Islands, Coquet, Sheppey,^{*} Thanet, Isle of Wight, Scilly Isles,^{*} Lundy, Anglesey,⁷ Holyhead, Bardsey, Isle of Man,^{*} and Walney.

1. Holy Island and Holyhead are islands only at high tide. The latter is connected with Anglesey by two embankments.

2. Anglesey is separated from the adjoining mainland by the Menai Strait.

3. The former wide passages between Thanet and Sheppey and the mainland are now almost filled up.

4. The Isle of Wight, the "garden of England," is extremely beautiful and fertile, and is separated from the mainland by Spithead and the Solent. Highest elevations, St. Catherine's Hill, 781 feet; Boniface Down, 787 feet.

5. The Scilly Isles, 30 miles south-west of Land's End, are 145 in number, of which 6 only are inhabited. Largest island, St. Mary, 10 miles round.

6. The Isle of Man, in the Irish Sea, is nearly midway between England, Scotland, and Ireland. Hilly; highest point, *Snaefell*, 2,004 feet above the

1. An estuary is a narrow arm of the sea, s	uch
as is often formed at the mouth of a river.	Гhe
word estuary is from the Latin astuarium.	

2. By a roadstead, or road, is meant a natural "harbour of refuge" where vessels may ride at anchor safely.

•

^{8.} Spithead, Ger. spitze, a beak.

^{4.} Holy Island, from a celebrated monastery

sea. Valuable lead mines at Foxdale and Laxey. Much agricultural produce exported. Area, 227 square miles; population, 54,000. *Douglas* is the largest town and now the seat of government. *Castletonon*, the former capital, is a very ancient city.

7. The Channel Islands—Jersey, Guernsey, Alderney, and Sark—off the coast of Normandy, also belong to England. The climate is warm and moist, and the soil fertile. Alderney and Guernsey are celebrated for their fine breed of cows. Total area, 75 square miles; population, 90,000.

. The Isle of Man and the Channel Islands form dependencies of the British Crown, but are not included within any of the counties. Their legislatures—the Tymould in the Isle of Man and the States in Jersey and Guernsey —are independent, the governors only being appointed by the Crown. In the Channel Islands, the people speak the old Norman dialect, while French is the official language; in the Isle of Man, the laws are still promulgated in Manx, a Celtic-Norwegian dialect.

MOUNTAINS.—England exhibits generally a gently-sloping or undulating surface, which, however, rises in some places into lofty hills. Wales is chiefly mountainous.

The high grounds of England and Wales lie principally upon the western side of the island, forming a succession of elevated regions which stretch nearly from the borders of Scotland to the Land's End, and are seldom far removed from the western coasts. They are naturally divisible into three sections or systems, viz., the Northern, the Cambrian, and the Devonian.

1. The Northern System includes the Cheviot Hills, Pennine Range, and the Cumbrian Group.

(a.) The **Cheviot Hills** are on the borders of England and Scotland. Cheviot Peak, in Northumberland, is 2,676 feet above the sea.

(b.) The **Pennine' Range** extends from the Cheviot Hills to the Peak (in the county of Derby), nearly along the dividing line between the six northern counties, and constitutes the most continuous elevated tract in England. The highest points are:—Cross Fell, ² 2,892 feet, in Cumberland, and Whernside, 2,414 feet, Ingleborough, 2,373 feet, and Pen-y-gant, 2,273 feet, in Yorkshire.

(c.) The Cumbrian³ Mountains form a group in the counties of Cumberland, Westmoreland, and northern Lancashire, near the coast of the Irish Sea. They contain the highest elevation in England :—Scaw Fell, situated in the centre of the group, and reaching 3,208 feet above the level of the sea; Skiddaw, 3,054 feet, and Hetvellyn, 3,118 feet, in the same group. The Cumbrian Group encloses the picturesque "English Lake District."

2. The Cambrian⁴ System includes all those mountains situated between the basin of the Severn and the Irish Sea, and spread over the greater part of the surface of Wales, reaching in their highest point a greater elevation than any of the English mountains.

Snowdon,^e in the county of Carnarvon, 3,570 feet above the sea, is the highest; Cader Idris,^e 2,929 feet; Plinlimmon, 2,469 feet; the Beacons of Brecknock, 2,900 feet; and many others, are lofty and well-known points.

3. The **Devonian System** includes the hills of Devonshire and Cornwall. They are less elevated, but still impart a varied and often rugged surface to the south-west corner of the island.

Brown Willy, in Cornwall, 1,868 feet; Yes Tor, 2,040 feet; Cawsand Beacon, 1,802 feet, on Dartmoor in Devonshire; and Dunkerry Beacon, 1,707 feet, on Exmoor in Somerset, are the highest points in this system.

1. Pennine, from Celtic, pen, a hill.	4. Cambrian, from Combria, Wales, 5. Snowdon, ence and dum (AR.), a hill; Welsh, Y Wydd/a, which means the conspicuous place. 6. Cater Idris, Welsh for Arthur's Seat.
2. Cross Fell, Danish, fell, a hill.	5. Snowdon, mow and dun (AS.), a hill; Welsh,
3. Cumbrian, from Cumbria, the old name of	Y Wyddfa, which means the conspicuous place.
Cumberland.	6. Cader Idris, Welsh for Arthur's Neal.

To the eastward of the above tracts the elevations are much less conspicuous; few points reach more than a thousand feet above the sea-level, and most of them are considerably below that altitude. The most important of these hill ranges are the Yorkshire and Lincolnshire Wolds,¹ the East Anglian Heights, which extend from the Chiltern Hills to the coast of Norfolk ; Gog Magog Hills, in Cambridgeshire ; the North and South Downs, with Salisbury Plain; * the Marlborough Downs, and other lower heights, to the south of the Thames ; the Cotswold Hills," in Gloucestershire, between the head-waters of the Thames and the lower course of the Severn ; the Malvern Hills, between the Severn and the Wye; the Mendip, Quantock, and Blackdown Hills, in Somersetshire; the Clee Hills and the Wrekin, in Shropshire; and the Clent Hills, in Worcestershire.

The most extensive moors' and moorlands are the bleak and barren North York Moors, in the north-east of Yorkshire; the boggy, peat-covered Lancashire Moorlands, between the Irwell and the Wyre; the wild and elevated waste of Exmoor, in Somerset and Devon ; and the granitic, "Tor-" crowned tableland of Dartmoor, in Devon.

PLAINS.—The most extensive plains and valleys in England are the following :- the York Plain, the Cumbrian and Cheshire Plains, the Central Plain, the district of the Fens, the Eastern Plain, the Valley of the Severn, and the Valley of the Thames.

1. The York Plain is the most extensive in England, and lies between the Pennine Range and the Wolds.

2. The Cumbrian and Cheshire Plains lie to the north and south of the Cumbrian Group, on the west side of the Pennine Range. Both are fertile, the latter especially being admirably adapted for grazing and dairy-farming.

3. The Central Plain varies from 200 to 400 feet above the sea, and extends from the Thames on the south to the Ouse on the north, and from the Severn on the west to the Trent on the east.

4. The district of the Fens,^s which lies around the shores of the Wash, in-cludes parts of the counties of Lincoln, Northampton, Huntingdon, Cambridge, Norfolk, and Suffolk, and forms the lowest and most perfectly level portion of the island. The whole tract has been converted by drainage into a highly productive district.

5. The Eastern Plain includes the sea-board of Essex. Suffolk, and Norfolk. and is separated from the Fens by the East Anglian Heights.

RIVERS.—As all the higher elevations of land lie nearer the western than the eastern shores, the longest rivers are, with one exception, on the eastern side of England, and flow into the North Sea. The main slope of the country is therefore towards the east; the shorter slopes are towards the south and west. The numerous streams and rivers of England may thus be classified according to the inclination of their basins.

^{1.} Wold, A.-S. weald, a forest. Cf. German

 ² On this plain, about eight miles from Salisbury, is Stonehenge, a Druidical or Danish circle.
 3 Octawold, probably from the cois for sheep, and wold.

^{4.} Moor, A. S. mer, waste land. 5. Also called the "Bedford Level," from the Duke of Bedford, who reclaimed large portions of it in the reign of Oharles II. The coast is in some parts protected from inundation by dykes, as in Holland.

I. Rivers flowing into the North Sea, from the

- 1. Pennine Range: The Tyne, Wear, Tees. Ouse, and Trent. 2. Watershed of the Central Plain: The Witham, Welland, Nen, and Great Ouse, all of which enter the Wash.
- 3. East Anglian Heights : The Yare, Orwell, Stour (Essex), Colne, and Blackwater.
- 4. Cotswold and other hills: The Thames and its tributaries.
- 5. Wealden Heights: The Stour (Kent).
- II. Rivers flowing into the English Channel, from the

 - 1. Wealden Heights : The Rother, Ouse (Sussex), and Arun. 2. The Downs of Hants and Wilts : The Itchen, Test, and Avon.
 - 3. Devonian Range: The Stour (Dorset), Frome, Axe, Otter, Exe, Teign, Dart, Tamar, and Fal.

III. Rivers flowing into the Bristol Channel, from the

- 1. Devonian Range : The Torridge, Taw, and Parret. 2. Cotswold Hills : The Bristol Avon.
- 3. Watershed of the Central Plain : The Avon (tributary of the Severn).
- 4. Welsh Mountains : The Severn, Wye, Usk, Taff, Neath, Tawe, and Towy.

IV. Rivers flowing into the Irish Sea, from the

- 1. Welsh Mountains : The Teify, Dyfi, Conway, Clwyd, and Dec. 2. Pennine Range : The Mersey, Ribble, Wyre, Lune, and Elon.
- 3. Cumbrian Group: The Kent and the Derwent.

Of the above the most important are the Thames, Severn, Trent, Yorkshire Ouse, Humber, Great Ouse, Wye, Tyne, Bristol Avon, and Mersey.

1. The **Thames**¹ is, with two exceptions,² the longest river in the British Islands, and it ranks first in order of importance, since it has London, the metropolis of the British Empire, upon its banks. It is formed by the junction of the Thame and the Isis (both of which rise in the Cotswold Hills, in Gloucestershire), and flows east into the North Sea after a course of 215 miles. Area of basin, 6,160 square miles. Tributaries-on the right bank, the Kennet, Loddon, Wey, Mole, Darent, and Medway; and on the left, the Cherwell, Thame, Colne, Brent, Lea, and Roding. The Thames is navigable for the largest vessels nearly to London Bridge, and for smaller craft to Lechlade, 160 miles from the sea. The tide is felt as far as Teddington (hence the name), about 80 miles from the sea.

2. The Severn³ rises on the east side of Plinlimmon, and enters the Bristol Channel after a course of 240 miles. It drains an area of 4,500 square miles. Pributaries—on the right bank, the Teme; on the left, the Vyrnuy, Tern, Stour, and Upper Avon.⁴ The Severn is navigable to Welshpool, a distance of 170 miles from the sea.

3. The Trent rises in the moorlands of Staffordshire, and falls into the Humber after a course of 180 miles. It is navigable to Burton, 105 miles from the Humber. Area of basin, 4,000 square miles. Tributaries-on the right bank, the Tame and the Soar; and on the left, the Dove and the Dervent.

4. The Ouse, sometimes distinguished as the Yorkshire Ouse, is formed by the junction of the Swale and the Ure, and flows into the Humber after a course of 150 miles. Area of basin, 5,500 square miles. Tributaries—on the right bank, the Nidd, Wharfe, Aire, Don ; and on the left, the Derwent.

1. Thames, from Thamesis, the broad Isis: Gaelic usings, water. 2. The Shannon and the Severn. The Severn is the longest river in Britain. 8. Severn Being joined by the Se at Linnidloes, it becomes the Seaures or Severn. 4. Three rivers named Avoa have been men.

5. The river Humber is formed by the junction of the Trent and Ouse, and is commercially important, Hull being the third port in the kingdom.

6. The **Great Ouse** is the longest river entering the Wash, having a length of 156 miles and draining an area of 2,960 square miles. Tributaries—*Cam*, *Lark*, and *Little Ouse*, all on the right bank. Navigable to Bedford, 90 miles from the sea.

7. The Wye rises on Plinlimmon, near the source of the Severn, and falls into the Bristol Channel after a course of 148 miles. Drainage area, 1,650 square miles.

8. The **Tyne** is formed by the confluence of the North Tyne, which rises in the Cheviots, and the South Tyne, rising on Cross Fell, and has a course of 73 miles. Area of basin, 1,100 square miles.

9. The Bristol Avon is sometimes regarded as a tributary of the Severn. It has a length of 78 miles and a drainage area of 900 square miles.

10. The **Mersey**¹ is a small river (68 miles in length), but its estuary forms the "Liverpool Channel," one of the most important harbours in the world. It drains an area of 1,706 square miles, and is navigable to its junction with the *Irvell*.

LAKES.—There are few lakes in England and Wales, and they are nearly all situated within the region of the Cumbrian Mountains the far-famed "English Lake District"—and in North Wales.

In the English Lake District, the most picturesque part of the country, are several lakes, of which are Windermere,² Ulleswater, Coniston, Derwent Water, Bassenthwatte, Crummock, and Wastwater. The chief Welsh lakes are Bala Lake, the Lakes of Llanberis, and Conway, in North Wales; and Brecknock Mere, in South Wales. There are also a few meres in Cheshire and the Fen District.

: The largest English lake is Windermere, 14 miles long and 1 mile broad. Bala Lake, 4 miles long and § mile broad, is the largest in Wales.

CLIMATE.—The climate of England is temperate and healthy. The average temperature of the year is rather higher than that of the adjacent shores of the continent, while the summers are not so hot nor the winters so severe as those experienced on the mainland in similar latitudes.

The general moisture of the atmosphere, and the frequent occurrence of rain, as well as the above-mentioned characteristics, are explained by the insular position of Britain. The western side of the island has a rather higher temperature than the neighbourhood of the eastern coasts, and has also a greater fall of rain. The coasts of Cornwall and Devon, and the shores of South Wales, are especially distinguished by the mildness of their winter.

The mean temperature of summer in London is 63.8° ; of winter, 37.3° . Mean annual temperature, 50.55° . The lowest average winter temperature is about 35° or 36° , and the highest average summer about 64° . The number of days in the year upon which west and east winds blow has been observed to be in the ratio of 225 to 140; north and south winds as 192 to 178. The average annual rainfall at Dover is 30 inches; London, 24; Coniston, 85; Liverpool, 35; and at Plymouth, 40.

^{1.} Mersey, A.-S. mere, a lake; ey, an island. 2. Windermere (British), gwyn, bright; dwr. water; and A.-S. mere, a lake.

MINERALS.-The mineral produce of England and Wales is distinguished by its extraordinary abundance in what are most necessary to civilised man-coal and iron, together with copper, lead. sinc. tin. and other useful ores.

1. The coalfields¹ of England occur chiefly in the northern and midland counties, and yield an inexhaustible supply of that fuel-necessary alike for the purposes of manufacturing industry and of household consumption. South Wales includes a rich coalfield, of large extent, and North Wales contains some like tracts, of smaller area.

2. Iron-ore² occurs abundantly within the limits of nearly all the coal districts, and is most extensively worked in South Wales, together with the counties of Stafford, Shropshire, Yorkshire, Derbyshire, Durham, and Northumberland.

3. Lead is principally worked in Derbyshire, Northumberland, Cumberland, North and South Wales, and Devonshire.

4. Copper and tin belong chiefly (the latter entirely) to the counties of Cornwall and Devon.

5. Cheshire furnishes an abundant supply of salt, from the brine-springs and mines in the valley of the river Weaver, a tributary of the Mersey.

6. Good marble and building-stone are derived from the northern and north-midland districts of the country, as well as from its south-western peninsula. The Isle of Portland, in the county of Dorset, furnishes building-stone of excellent quality. The easterly and south-easterly divisions of England are deficient in this material; but the valuable clay in which they abound supplies the material-brick-of which the metropolis and other cities in those parts of the island are chiefly constructed.

7. Slate is extensively quarried in Wales and in the mountain-region of Cumberland and Westmoreland.

8. Of the precious metals, a considerable quantity of silver has always been derived from lead ore, &c., and an attempt has been made to work the goldbearing rocks discovered near Dolgelly, in North Wales.

PLANTS and ANIMALS.—The large extent to which the land has been brought under culture has greatly diminished the size of the forests' with which considerable portions of England were formerly covered, while many of the wild animals which its woods once sheltered have become altogether banished from within its limits.

The wild grasses, flowers, and shrubs, with the numerous smaller members of the animal kingdom, though interesting to the naturalist, are of less real importance than the grains, fruits, and vegetables, the domestic cattle and various farm-yard stock, which engage the attention of the agricultural portion of the English population. Few, even of those which thrive most upon its soil, were originally native to England, and several have been introduced within a comparatively modern date.

South Staffordshire, and Yorkshire. From the cisy-band ores of the Cleveland hills around Middlesborough, one-third of the iron smelted in England is produced, while the red hematile ores of North Lancahire and Oumberland supply the great steel works of Barrowin-Furnes. 3. The principal forest are --the New Forest in Hants, Dean Forest in Gloucester, Salcey Forest in Morthampton, Windsor Forest in Berks, and therwood Forest in Notis.

^{1.} The coalifields of England He north of a line drawn from the Weah to the Severn; those of wales are in the ertreme southeastern and north-eastern parts of the Principality. The great English coal-fields are the (1) North und South and Durham, (9) Cumberland, (8) Yorkhire, (4) Derbyshires and Nottingham, (8) North and South Staffordahire, and (8) Kiropabire. Wales has two coalifield (1) the Filmt and Denbirth coalifield in North Wales, and (8) the South Wales coalifield 2. The chief iron mines are in South Wales,

Among trees, the oak, elm; birch, poplar, alder, aspen, yew, mountain ash, and Scotch fir, are probably indigenous to the soil; as also are the apple, the hazel-nut, willow, black and white thorn, blackberry, and common dogrose. The trees, shrubs, and roots that are most common in England are, for the most part, the same that belong to similar latitudes of Europe.

The vegetables which compose our common salads (as lettuces, radishes, &c.) were not grown in England until the reign of Henry VIII. The potato —a native of the New World—was first introduced into England in the reign of Elizabeth. The peach, and other fruits of like kind, have been derived (by way of Southern Europe) from the countries of Western Asia. We owe some of our most common garden flowers, as the ranunculus and the damaskrose, to the Crusaders and their companion pilgrims. The various roses, the narcissus, iris, jonquil, mignonette, and many other well-known ornaments of our garden, have been derived from Western Asia, or the coasts of the Mediterranean.

INHABITANTS.—England and Wales, with an area of 58,000 square miles, contain a population of over 29 millions,¹ so that, in the proportion of inhabitants to extent of surface, our country is more populous than any other European country, with the exception of Belgium.

In 1891, England contained 27,482,104, and Wales 1,518,914 inhabitants, equal to an average of 540 persons to the square mile in England, and 206 in Wales. The density of population varies exceedingly in different parts of the country; thus, while the County of London has over 350,000 inhabitants to the square mile, Westmoreland has only about 85. In Wales, the most thicklypeopled county is Glamorgan, with about 850 persons to the square mile; and the least populous is Radnor, with 50. The great centres of population are London, South Lancashire, the West Riding of Yorkshire, Birmingham, and Newcastle, in England; and Merthyr-Tydvil in Wales.

Bace.—The people of England belong to the *Teutonic* race, those of Wales and Cornwall are of *Celico* origin. Of the Celitic race, the *Gacis* were evidently the first settlers in the south of England, and were subsequently driven north to Scotland and west to Ireland by the *Kymri*, another section of the Celici family, and the ancestors of the present Welsh. Of the Teutonic race, the *Angles, Jutes*, and *Saxons* first invaded Britain, and in time dislodged the Kymri from every part of the country except Cornwall and Wales. Numbers of two other sections of the Teutonic family, the *Danes* and the *Normans*, also settled in England, and by the gradual admixture of all these elements the *English* nation was formed.

Language.—The languages spoken also differ—that of the Welsh and, to a comparatively recent date, the Cornish people, being purely Celtic; that of the English is mainly derived from the Anglo-Saxon, but with a large admixture of Latin, Greek, Norman-French, and other words of foreign origin. In the Isle of Man a peculiar Celtic dialect, called Manx, is still spoken. In the Channel Islands, French is the common language.

INDUSTRIES.—*Manufactures* and *trade* constitute the great national industries of England. Until the close of the last century, England was essentially an agricultural country, but the rapid ex-

density in England and Wales was 446 per square mile; in 1851, 306; and in 1801, 153. In 1891, according to the Census Returns, the density was 488 per square mile.

^{1.} In 1881, England and Wales contained a population of 25,974,438-12,639,692 males, and 13,234,637 formales-an increase, since 1871, of 3,262,173, equal to an average daily addition of 500 persons throughout the decade. In 1881, the

tension of machinery, and the amazing growth of our great manufacturing industries, have effected a striking change in the general character of the national industry. England ranks first among the nations of the world, in regard both to the extent of manufacturing produce and the amount of its foreign trade. Its agricultural produce, though considerable, is unequal to the consumption of its population, and the deficiency is supplied by the importation of foodstuffs from other lands.

1. Agriculture.—The more strictly agricultural districts of England are found chiefly in the eastern and southern portions of the island : the manufacturing districts belong to the northern, north-midland, and western counties. The farming pursuit in the latter is devoted in great measure to the rearing of stock, which is also (from the hilly nature of its surface, unsuited to the plough) the case in Wales.¹

Wheat, oats, barley, and rye are the grains most largely grown; wheat most extensively in the south-eastern counties, barley in the eastern and midland counties, oats within the district of the Fens and in the north. Hops are cultivated chiefly in Kent and Surrey (within the tract of country known as the Weald¹), and in the counties of Worcester and Hereford. The potato is very largely grown in Lancashire, Cumberland, and Cheshire ; the *turnip* chiefly in Norfolk. Rape is much cultivated in Lincolnshire and Cambridgeshire ; hemp and flax in the counties of Lincoln and Suffolk. Garden vegetables are grown, on the most extensive scale, in the vicinity of the metropolis, and near the large towns in general. The counties of Hereford and Devon are distinguished for the extensive culture of the apple, from which cider is largely made.

2. Manufactures.—Cotton, * wool, * and iron are the three great staples of the manufacturing industry of Britain. The *first*, which is a vegetable material—the pod of the cotton plant—is derived by import, chiefly from the United States of America. The second, which belongs in its native state to the animal kingdom, is furnished by the fleeces of the sheep reared upon our plains and downs, together with enormous quantities imported from distant lands—principally from our colonies in Australia and South Africa. The *third*, a mineral ore, is supplied in exhaustless abundance by the English soil.

The southern division of Lancashire and the adjoining part of Cheshire are the great seat of the cotton manufacture, which, though of comparatively recent origin, employs a much larger number of artisans than any other single branch of British industry. Manchester is the centre and capital of the cotton manufacture, and Liverpool is its port. The West Riding of Yorkshire is the chief Rectify, and hyperpoor is its port. The west funding of Longand is the other seat of the *woollen* manufacture, and the towns of Leeds and Bradford are its principal centres of industry. The south part of Staffordshire, and the adja-cent portions of Warwick, Worcester, and Shropshire, are the chief seats of the manufacture of *iron* and *hardware* goods, and the town of Birmingham is the manufacturing capital of this district. Sheffield, in Yorkshire, is the chief seat of one branch of the hardware trade-the making of cutlery.

Other manufactures are carried on extensively in England, but none

3. Nearly 2,000 million lbs, of raw cotton are now imported every year. Three-fourths of it come from the United States, and the rest from Egypt, British India, Turkey, and other coun-tries. 4. Over 700 million lbs, of wool are annually imported; considerably more than half coming from the Australasian colonies.

^{1.} Of the total area of England (32,527,070 acres), more than two-thirds are under cultiva-tion or in permanent pasture. In Wales, only about half the land is in pasture or under culti-

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upon a scale of such magnitude as the three above-named. The silk and linen manufactures, the making of hosiery and lace, the leather manufacture, those of earthenware and glass, of watches and clocks, of paper, and a vast variety of others, are all of importance.

TRADE.—The internal trade of England is very extensive, and its development is facilitated by good roads and railways, nangable rivers and canals; while the numerous inlets and estuaries which form such splendid harbours, enable thousands of coasting steamers and sailing vessels to trade regularly from port to port on the coasts —east, south, and west.

Good roads and well-kept canals traverse every part of England, and lines of railway supply the means of rapid communication between all the principal towns.

Roads.—There are about 25,000 miles of turnpike roads, and more than 100,000 miles of cross roads. The former especially are well made, and are always kept in good condition.

Canals and navigable rivers formed a most important means of communication before railways were introduced, and are still largely used for the conveyance of heavy goods and coals. There are above 3,000 miles of canals, and nearly 1,800 miles of navigable rivers, so that the available waterways in England are nearly 5,000 miles in length.

Bailways.—All the great railway lines in England radiate from London, which is thus directly connected by rail with every part of the country. The railways of England carry over 600 millions of passengers annually, besides enormous quantities of goods, and have done more than anything else to extend the trade and commerce of the country.

Posts and Telegraphs.—The postal and telegraphic services of **England are the most complete and efficient in the world**.

COMMERCE.—The foreign commerce of England extends to every part of the globe; her ships traverse every sea, and her flag is seen in the harbours of every land. The *import* of raw materials, and the *export* of manufactured goods, are distinguishing features of English commerce.

Imports.—Sugar, coffee, spices, and other productions of tropical regions, foreign to the English soil, are imported from the East and West Indies; tea from British India and China; tobacco from the United States and elsewhere; timber from Canada and the countries lying around the Baltic Sea; wines from France, Spain, Portugal, Germany, Hungary, and Australia; hides, skins, and tallow from South America, South Africa, and Russia; raw cotton from the United States, India, Egypt, and other countries; wool from Australia, South Africa, &c.; corn and flowr from the United States, India, Australia, Russia, Austria-Hungary, &c.

Exports.—The most important articles exported are cotton, woollen, linen, and silk goods, iron and steel, earthenware, tin, machinery, stationery and books, and coal.

The countries to which the largest quantities of British manufactures and other produce are exported are the British Possessions abroad, the United States of America, the East Indies, France, Germany, Holland, Russia, Belgium, Italy, Africa, Brazil, Turkey, China, Spain, Denmark, Japan, and the various states of South America.

Ports.-Of the great ports of England, London has by far the largest general trade, but its foreign trade is not much larger than that of Liverpool. More than two-thirds of the entire foreign trade of England passes through these two great ports, which also yield considerably more than two-thirds of the total customs receipts.

The other chief ports (in order of tonnage entered and cleared) are the Tyne Ports (Newcastle, Gateshead, North and South Shields), Cardiff, Hull, Sunder-land, Newport, Portsmouth, Southampton, Swansea, Bristol, Middles-borough, Plymouth, and Hartlepool.

TOWNS.—Three-fifths of the people of England and Wales live in towns. London alone contains one-sixth of the total population of the country, and two other cities, Liverpool and Manchester. each contain upwards of seven hundred thousand inhabitants.

According to the Census Returns for 1891, there are, besides London, Liverpool, and Manchester, 21 English towns with over 100,000 inhabitants, seven of which-Birmingham, Leeds, Sheffield, Bristol, Bradford, Nottingham, and Hull, contain a population of over 200,000. There are altogether no less than 62 towns with a population of over 50,000.

The ten largest towns in England and Wales are the following :----

London, with a population of 5,500,000; Liverpool, 730,000; Manchester and Salford, 703,000; Birmingham, 429,000; Leeds, 368,000; Sheffield, 324,000; Bristol, 222,000; Bradford, 216,000; Nottingham, 212,000; Hull, 200,000. Each of these ten cities thus contain over 200,000 inhabitants, and together contain over 81 millions of people, or considerably more than onefourth of the total population of England and Wales.

Twelve other towns contain over 100,000 inhabitants, namely :--

Newcastle, 186,000; Portsmouth, 159,000; Leicester, 142,000; Oldham, 131,000; Sunderland, 131,000; Cardiff, 129,000; Blackburn, 120,000; Bolton, 115,000; Brighton, 115,000; Preston, 108,000; Norwich, 101,000; Birken-head, 100,000.

Fifteen other towns contain over 70,000 inhabitants, namely :---

Huddersfield, 95,000; Derby, 94,000; Swanses, 90,000; Ystradyfodwg, 88,000; Burnley, 87,000; Gateshead, 86,000; Plymouth, 84,000; Halifar, 83,000; Wolverhampton, 83,000; South Shields, 78,000; Middlesborough, 76,000; Walsall, 72,000; Rochdale, 71,000; St. Helens, 71,000; Stockport, 70,000.

COUNTIES .- England and Wales are divided into 52 Counties or Shires, of which there are 40 in England, and 12 in Wales.

All these divisions are very irregular in shape, and, as the map shows, very unequal in size. **Butlandshire**, the smallest of the English counties, is hardly more than one-fortieth part of the size of **Yorkshire**, which is the largest. Lincoln, Devon, and Norfolk come next to Yorkshire in order of magnitude. Middlesex, Huntingdon, and Bedford are, next to Rutland, the smallest in extent.

The English counties are divided, with reference to relative situation, into six Northern, six Western, five Eastern, nine Southern, and fourteen Midland (six North-Midland and eight South-Midland) Counties

1. The six Northern Counties are Northumberland, Durham, Yorkshire, Cumberland, Westmoreland, and Lancashire. The first three border on the North Sea, the other three are on the western side of England.

2. The six Western Counties are Cheshire, Shropshire, Herefordshire, Monmouthshire, Gloucestershire, and Somerset. The first four border on Wales; the last two are on the English side of the Severn and its estuary.

3. The five Eastern Counties are Lincoln, Cambridge, Norfolk, Suffolk, and Essex. All, except Cambridge, are washed by the waters of the North Sea.

4. The nine Southern Counties are Kent, Surrey, Susser, Berkshire, Hampshire, Wiltshire, Dorsetshire, Devon, and Cornwall. They stretch (with the exception of Surrey, Berkshire, and Wiltshire, which are inland) along the south coast of Eugland, from the South Foreland on the east, to the Land's End on the west.

5. The six North-Midland Counties are Stafford, Derby, Nottingham, Leicester, Warwick, and Worcester.

6. The eight South-Midland Counties are Oxford, Buckingham, Middlesex, Hertford, Bedford, Huntingdon, Northampton, and Rutland. *Middlesex* is termed the "Metropolitan County," since it contains the greater part of *London*, the capital of England and of the British Empire.

7. The six Counties in North Wales are Anglesey, Carnarvon, Denbigh, Flint, Merioneth, and Montgomery.

8. The six Counties in South Wales are Cardigan, Radnor, Brecknock, Carmarthen, Pembroke, and Glamorgan.

ADMINISTRATIVE COUNTIES.—Besides the 52 counties, each of which is now governed by a County Council, London and 61 provincial Boroughs have, for all purposes of Local Government, been formed into Administrative Counties, absolutely independent of the counties of which they geographically form a part.

These County Boroughs are Barrow, Bath, Birkenhead, Birmingham, Blackburn, Bolton, Bootle-cum-Linacre, Bradford (Yorks.), Brighton, Bristol, Burnley, Bury, Canterbury, Cardiff, Chester, Coventry. Croydon, Derby, Davenport, Dudley, Exeter, Gateshead, Gloucester, Great Yarmouth, Halifax, Hanley, Hastings, Huddersfield, Ipswich, Kingston-upon-Hull, Leeds, Leicester, Lincoln, Liverpool, Manchester, Middlesborough, Newcastle-upon-Tyne, Northampton, Norwich, Nottingham, Oldham, Plymouth, Portsmouth, Preston, Reading, Rochdale, St. Helens, Salford, Sheffield, Southampton, South Shields, Stockport, Sunderland, Swansea, Walsall, West Bromwich, West Ham, Wigan, Wolverhampton, Worcester, York.

The County of London has an area of nearly 120 square miles, and a population of over $4\frac{1}{2}$ millions.

For Administrative purposes, the County of London is controlled by a County Council. For Parliamentary purposes, London is divided into 59 Boroughs, each of which returns one member.

I. SIX NORTHERN COUNTIES.¹

1. NORTHUMBERLAND, the most northerly of the English counties, contains the towns of Newcastle, North Shields, Berwick, Alnwick, Morpeth, and Hexham. The south-eastern portion of the county contains a rich coalfield, and has coal-mines, ironworks, and various manufactures. Its western and northern divisions are hilly and pastoral.

NEWCASTLE (186),² on the river Tyne, is the chief seat of the coal trade. and is also the county town. Hexham, a few miles west of Newcastle, was the scene of a victory gained by the Yorkists over the Lancastrian forces in 1464. Berwick, at the mouth of the river Tweed, adjoins the Scotch frontier, and is celebrated in the history of early border warfare. Halidon Hill, the scene of a victory gained by the English over the Scots in 1333, is immediately to the north of Berwick. Northumberland includes the site of the battle of Flodden, so disastrous to the Scotch, fought (in 1513) near the village of Flodden, a few miles distant from the small town of Wooler, at the eastern foot of the Cheviot Hills. Homildon Hill, the scene of Harry Percy's victory over Douglas (in 1402), lies only a mile distant from Wooler.

2. DURHAM adjoins Northumberland, and resembles that county in its eastern part, which is a rich coalfield, with numerous iron and other works, and busy seaport towns.

The cathedral city of DURHAM (15), on the Wear, is the capital of the county, but Sunderland (131), at the mouth of the same river, is a great coal port and shipbuilding centre ; Jarrow, with its large shipbuilding yards and chemical works; and Gateshead, practically a suburb of Newcastle on the Durham side of the Tyne, are much more important places. stockton (on the Tees), Hartlepool, South Shields, and Tynemouth are also in this county.

3. YORKSHIRE is divided into three *ridings*—the North, East, and West Ridings. The two former are agricultural and pastoral; the West Riding embraces part of an extensive coal-field, and is a populous district, the chief seat of the woollen and clothing manufactures.

YORK (67), the capital of the county, and an archbishop's see, stands on the river Ouse, in the centre of a fertile plain. A few miles west of York is the village of *Long Marston*, near which the army of Charles I. was defeated by Cromwell in 1644. Further to the south-west, near the banks of the Wharfe, is Towton, the scene of the bloodiest engagement fought during the Wars of the Roses (1461). Stamford Bridge, a few miles east of York (on the river Derwent), is noteworthy for the victory gained there, in 1066, by Harold over his brother Tostig and a Norwegian army, a few days prior to the battle of Hastings.

The chief towns in the West Riding of Yorkshire are Leeds, Sheffield,

1. The areas and population of the Six Northern Counties are as follows:--(1.) Northumberland, 2,016 sq. m., pop. 506,093. (2.) Durham. 1,011 sq. m., pop. 1,016,449. (3.) Yorkahire, 8,067 sq. m., pop. 3,003,018. (4.) Cumberland, 1,515 sq. m., pop. 86,093. (6.) Vestimoreland, 758 sq. m., pop. 86,093. (6.) Lancashire, 1,599 sq. m., pop. 8,903. (7.) Lancashire, 1,599 sq. m., pop. 8,903. (8.) As an indication of their absolute and rela-tive importance, the population of the largest

towns are given (in thousands) between brackets, thus—Newcastie (198), i.e., 186,000. All popula-tions of the counties and towns of the United Kingdom are taken from the Census Returns for Rei, except in the case of the smaller towns in Ireland. 3. The battle of NewILi's Gross, gained over the Socitian arup in 1864, was fought in this county, a few miles distant from the city of Durham.

Bradford, Huddersfield, Halifax, Wakefield, Barnsley, Dewsbury, Doncaster and Ripon. Leeds (367), on the river Aire, Bradford (216), Huddersfield (95), and Halifax (83), are the great seats of the woollen and clothing manufactures. Sheffield (324), on the river Don, is the seat of the cutlery trade. Ripon, on the Ure, is a cathedral city. Wakefield, also a cathedral city, on the river Calder, was the scene of a victory gained by the Lancastrians over the followers of the White Rose in 1460.

The East Riding contains the towns of Hull, Beverley, and Bridlington. Hull (200) stands on the north bank of the Humber, at the entrance of the little river Hull, and is an important seaport.

The North Riding contains Scarborough and Whitby, both situated on the coast; with Malton, Richmond, and Northallerton in the interior. The *Battle of the Standard*, between the English and Scottish armies in 1138, was fought near Northallerton. The port of Middlesbrough (although founded only in 1829, now contains over 75,000 inhabitants) is the centre of the important iron district of Cleveland.

4. **OUMBERLAND** is for the most part mountainous, but its northerly division includes a plain of some extent, along the Solway Firth and the lower course of the Eden. In the west, adjoining the Irish Sea, is a small but highly-productive coalfield. The chief towns are Carlisle, Whitehaven, Workington, Maryport, Cockermouth, Penrith, and Keswick.

CARLISLE (39), the capital, is a cathedral city, on the river Eden. Whitehaven, on the coast, is the chief seat of the coal trade. Workington and Maryport are other coal-exporting ports. Keswick is in the heart of the "Lake District."

5. **WESTMORELAND** is for the most part mountainous and pastoral, and contains the towns of Kendal and Appleby.

Appleby is the county town; but Kendal (14), on the river Kent, which flows into Morecambe Bay, is of larger size, and has woollen and other manufactures. Ambleside is much resorted to on account of the beauty of the scenery.

6. LANCASHIRE includes the great seats of the cotton manufacture. This branch of industry is pursued through all the southern portion of the county, which embraces a valuable coalfield. A small detached portion of the county, known as Furness, lies to the north of Morecambe Bay. This belongs physically to the region of the Cumbrian mountains.

Manchester (505, including the adjoining town of Salford 703), on the Irwell, and Liverpool (with suburbs, 730), at the mouth of the Mersey, are the largest towns in England, next to the metropolis; the former is the great centre of the cotton trade, and the latter its port. Manchester and Liverpool are cathedral cities. Liverpool is now connected with Birkenhead by a railway tunnel under the Mersey. Preston, on the Ribble, Bolton, Oldham, Blackburn, Wigan, Rochdale, Ashton-under-Lyne, Warrington, Colne, Chorley, and Lancaster, are all busy manufacturing towns. Barrow-in-Furness (52) is the port of the iron ore districts of North Lancashire, and has the largest steel works in the kingdom. LANCASTER, on the river Lune, ranks as the capital of the county. Part of Stalybridge is in this county.

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II. SIX WESTERN COUNTIES.¹

1. CHESHIRE is chiefly an agricultural county, but includes part of the cotton-manufacturing district.

The cathedral city of CHESTER (37), on the river Dee, is its capital. On Rowton Heath, to the west of this city, the troops of Charles I. were defeated by the parliamentary forces in 1645-a few months after the battle of Naseby. Stockport (70), Macclesfield (36), and Birkenhead (100), opposite to Liverpool (with which it is now connected by a railway tunnel under the Mersey), are important towns. Nantwich, Middlewich, and Northwich, in the valley of the river Weaver, are famous for their saltworks. The manufacturing town of Stalybridge (26) is principally in this county.

2. SHROPSHIRE is chiefly agricultural, but includes a small coalfield, and has some iron and other manufactures at Coalbrookdale, and elsewhere.

SHREWSBURY (27), on the Severn, is the county town. The battle between the army of Henry IV. and the insurgent forces under Hotspur was fought in its immediate vicinity in 1403. There are coal and iron The other towns are Bridgnorth, mines at Wenlock and Madeley. Wellington, Ludlow, and Oswestry.

3. HEREFORDSHIRE is entirely agricultural, and is famous for its hop-grounds and its orchards.

The city of HEREFORD (20), its capital, stands on the river Wye, and has an ancient cathedral. Important cattle and cheese fairs are held in October each year. Leominster, Ledbury, and Ross are small towns in this county. A few miles to the north-west of Leominster is Mortimer's Cross, one of the battlefields of the Wars of the Roses, A.D. 1461.

4. **MONMOUTHSHIRE** is a mining and manufacturing county. It includes a portion of the South Wales coalfield, and has numerous ironworks.

The chief town, MONMOUTH (6), is on the Wye, at the junction of the small river Munnow. At Tredegar are several coal and iron mines. The other towns are Newport (55), a considerable seaport at the mouth of the Usk, Abergavenny, Pontypool, and Chepstow.

5. GLOUCESTERSHIRE includes the long chain of the Cotswold Hills, and is in great part agricultural, but it possesses two small coalfields-one of them in the Forest of Dean, to the west of the Severn, the other near the Avon, on the south border of the county. The making of woollen cloth is pursued extensively at Stroud and other places in the neighbourhood of the Cotswolds.

GLOUCESTER (40), the capital, is on the left bank of the Severn, and is a cathedral city. Cheltenham, Stroud, Circencester, and Tewkesbury

- Herefordshire, 833 sq. m., pop. 115,996.
 Monmouthshire, 578 sq. m., pop. 252,260.
 Gloucestershire, 1,224 sq. m., pop. 599,974.
 Somersetshire, 1,640 sq. m., pop. 484,253.

^{1.} The area and population of the Six Western Counties are as follows:-(1.) Cheshire, 1,026 sq. m., pop. 730,052 (2.) Shropshire, 1,139 sq. m., pop. 236,324

are in this county. Cheltenham is famed for its mineral waters. Tewkesbury, on the Severn, is historically noteworthy on account of the victory gained there by Edward IV. over the army of Queen Margaret, in 1471, three weeks after the battle of Barnet.

Bristol (222), on the river Avon, is partly in Gloucestershire and partly in Somersetshire, but has the privileges of a county in itself. Bristol is an important and flourishing port.

6. SOMERSETSHIRE is almost wholly agricultural.

TAUNTON (18), on the river Tone, is the county town. Bath (52), which is of larger size, stands on the Avon, and has warm mineral springs. wells is an ancient city, lying at the foot of the Mendip Hills. The cities of Bath and Wells form together one diocese or episcopal see. Frome (10), Bridgwater (12), and Yeovil are in this county. Between Bridgwater and Taunton is Sedgemoor, the scene of Monmouth's defeat by the troops of James II. in 1685. Athelney, the temporary retreat of Alfred, was in former ages a marshy tract of ground, lying near the junc-tion of the rivers Tone and Parret, by which it was insulated.

III. FIVE EASTERN COUNTIES.

1. LINCOLNSHIRE is an agricultural county.

Its capital, LINCOLN (41), is an ancient cathedral city on the river Witham. Boston (15), also on the Witham, a few miles above its mouth, and Grimsby (52), on the south bank of the Humber, are flourishing ports. Gainsborough (on the Trent), Stamford (on the Welland), and Louth are inland towns.

2. **CAMBRIDGESHIRE** is an agricultural county. Its northern half is called the Isle of Ely, from its having in former times been insulated by marshes, and is within the level region of the Fens.

The county town, CAMBRIDGE (37), is on the river Cam, or Granta, which joins the Ouse, and is the seat of one of the two ancient universities of England. Wisbeach, Ely, and Newmarket are in this county. Ely, on the river Ouse, is a cathedral city.

3. NORFOLK is the only one of the eastern counties that possesses any considerable manufactures; but by far the larger portion of the county is agricultural.

The ancient cathedral city of NORWICH (101), its capital, was an early seat of woollen manufacture, which it still retains. Norwich stands on the river Wensum, immediately above its junction with the Yare. Yarmouth (49), at the mouth of the Yare, is the chief centre of the English herring fishery. Lynn or King's Lynn (18), which also possesses considerable trade, is at the mouth of the Great Ouse.

4. SUFFOLK is an entirely agricultural county.

Norfolk, 2,118 sq. m., pop. 456,474.
 Suffolk, 1,475 sq. m., pop. 369,351.
 Essex, 1,542 sq. m., pop. 785,399.

The areas and population of the Five Eastern Counties are as follows:- J. Láncolnshire, 2,782 sq. m., pop. 472,778.
 Cambridgeshire, 820 sq. m., pop. 188,682.

Its chief town, IPSWICH (57), stands on the river Orwell, a few miles above its mouth. Bury St. Edmunds, Lowestoft, and Sudbury are the Lowestoft is a seaport, situated at the most other principal towns. easterly extremity of Great Britain, and is an important station of the herring fishery.

5. ESSEX is also chiefly agricultural.

Its county town is CHELMSFORD (11), on the river Chelmer. Colchester (35), on the Colne, has large oyster fisheries. Harwich, at the mouth of the Stour, is an important packet station for passengers and goods to and from the continent, and may be regarded as one of the outports of London. Saffron-Walden, Braintree, and Maldon are small inland towns.

IV. NINE SOUTHERN COUNTIES.¹

1. **KENT** is chiefly an agricultural county, but it contains numerous seaports, some of which, from their proximity to the coast of France, were early of historical importance, and several of them are still important as packet stations or popular seaside resorts.

The county town is MAIDSTONE (32), on the river Medway; but Chatham, Woolwich, and Dover are of larger size. Chatham (32), which lies near the mouth of the Medway, is an important naval arsenal. It adjoins Rochester, which is an ancient cathedral city. Woolwich, the great military arsenal of England, is on the south bank of the Thames, below London. Dover is at the south east corner of the island, immediately opposite to the coast of France; a few miles west of it is Folkestone, also a seaport of ancient date. Dover and Folkestone are now the chief packet stations for the continent, steamers running regularly from Dover to Calais and Ostend and from Folkestone to Boulogne. Canterbury (23), on the river Stour, is an ancient cathedral city-the ecclesiastical metropolis of England^a-and surpasses any other place in Kent in historic dignity. It was here that the Saxon king, Ethelbert, A.D. 597, embraced Christianity, on its re-introduction into Britain by the agency of Augustine.

Along the shores of Kent (beginning at the eastern suburbs of London) there occur in succession the following places :-Greenwich, Woolwich, Gravesend, Rochester, and Chatham; Sheerness and Queenborough (on the Isle of Sheppey); Whitstable, Margate, Ramsgate, Sandwich, Deal, Dover, Folkestone, and Hythe.

Margate and Ramsgate are popular watering-places, on the eastern Opposite Deal are the Goodwin Sands, between which coast of Kent. and the shore is the much-frequented roadstead called The Downs.

3. Some of the ports on the kentish and Sussex coasts had peculiar privileges granted them in the later Saxon and early Norman times, from the importance of their position with reference to the opposite shores of the continent. The Oraque Pours, as they were called—originally five in number—were Sandwich, Deal, Doer, Hythe, and Ronney, all in Kent. Three others, Kye, Winchelsea, and Hasting, in the adjoining county of Sussex, were alterwards added Dovre, Dark, and Hastinos are now the most considerable of the Oraque Ports, the harbours of the others having become choked up by sand. These ports were bound by charter to provide a certain number of the Sandwich and the ference of the certain number of ships for the defence of the coast.

^{1.} The areas and population of the Nine Southern Counties are as follows :--Southern Counties are as follows: -(1) Kent, 1,655 eq. m., pop. 14,739,871.
(2) Surrey, 765 eq. m., pop. 14,730,871.
(3) Sussey, 1,468 eq. m., pop. 205,0442.
(4) Berkehire, 722 eq. m., pop. 205,446.
(5) Hamsphire, 1,253 eq. m., pop. 205,098.
(6) Wiltshire, 1,354 eq. m., pop. 204,099.
(7) Dorsetshire, 929 eq. m., pop. 194, 457.
(8) Devonshire, 2,558 eq. m., pop. 631,767.
(9) Cornwall, 1,349 eq. m., pop. 632,2869.
2. Canterbury and York are each the seat of an archbishopic. But Canterbury ranks first in point of dignity. The Archbishop of York is a primate of England, the Archbishop of Canterbury is primate of all England.

2. **SURREY** includes that portion of the metropolis situated to the south of the Thames, but by far the greater part of the county is agricultural.

GUILDFORD (14), the county town, is on the river Wey, an affluent of the Thames; Groydon (103), ten miles south of London Bridge, is almost a suburb of London. Richmond and Kingston, both on the Thames, are in this county. Kingston was important in Saxon times, and seven of our Saxon kings were crowned there. *Runnymead*, where the Great Charter was signed by King John, at the instance of his armed barons (A.D. 1215), is within the north-western border of Surrey, immediately adjoining the south bank of the Thames, and near the small town of Egham.

3. SUSSEX, an agricultural county, includes an extensive line of coast lying along the English Channel. From Beachy Head westward, this coast is backed by the range of chalk hills called the South Downs.

LEWES (11), on a small river called the Ouse, is the county town, and gave its name to a battle fought in the vicinity between Prince Edward (afterwards Edward I.) and the rebellious barons, during the reign of Henry III. (a.D. 1264). Brighton (115), on the coast, is a large and flourishing town, the resort of vast numbers of visitors from the metropolis. Eastbourne (35), near Beachy Head, is a fashionable watering-place. Hastings, also on the coast, is further to the eastward. A few miles west of Hastings (near Bulverhithe, on the shore of Pevensey Bay) is the place where William the Conqueror landed in 1066; the small town of Battle, to the north-west of Hastings, marks the scene of the engagement which, a few days afterwards, transferred the dominion of England from Saxon to Norman hands. Shoreham and Worthing are on the coast, to the west of Brighton. Chichester, still further west, is a cathedral city.

4. BERKSHIRE is an agricultural county.

BEADING (60), its capital, stands at the junction of the river Kennet with the Thames. Windsor, famous for its Castle, the chief residence of our sovereign, is on the south bank of the Thames. Abingdon, Maidenhead, Newbury, and Wantage are in this county. Two engagements between the armies of Charles I. and the Parliament occurred near Newbury in 1643 and the following year. Wantage is distinguished as the birthplace of Alfred the Great.

5. **HAMPSHIRE** is an agricultural county.

It possesses two important seaports—Portsmouth (159), and Southampton (65); but WINCHESTER (19), an ancient cathedral city, in the fertile valley of the Itchen, is the capital. Winchester was the chief city of the West Saxon kings, and continued to be regarded, in early Norman times, as the capital of the kingdom. Portsmouth is one of the three great naval arsenals of England. Andover, Lymington, and Basingstoke are small towns.

The Isle of Wight lies to the south of Hampshire, and forms a portion of that county. It contains the small towns of Newport, Byde, Ventnor, and Cowes. Near Newport is Carisbrooke Castle, at one time the prison of King Charles I. The eastern portion of the channel which divides the Isle of Wight from the mainland is called Spithead; the western portion is the Solent. Osborne is a favourite residence of our Queen.

6. WILTSHIRE is chiefly agricultural, but the manufacture of woollen cloth is carried on in its westerly division.

SALISBURY (16), the capital of the county, and a cathedral city, is on the Avon. The manor-house of *Clarendon*, where the well-known statutes called "The Constitutions of Clarendon" were drawn up in the reign of Henry II., is a few miles east of Salisbury. *Stonehenge*, a Druidical remain—among the most ancient monuments of our island—is upon the high chalk tract of Salisbury Plain. At Bradford, Trowbridge, and Westbury, the famous "West of England" cloth is made. Devises, Warminster, and Marlborough are among the other towns in this county. *Roundway Down*, near Devizes, was the scene of a skirmish between the Royalist and Parliamentary forces in 1643.

7. **DORSETSHIRE** is an agricultural county, and has several small seaports on the coast of the Channel.

DORCHESTER (8), the county town, is on the river Froom. Weymouth, (14), is a packet station and a fashionable watering-place. Poole and Bridport are among the other towns. The peninsular tracts known as the Isle of Purbeck and the Isle of Portland are both within this county.

8. **DEVONSHIRE**, which is chiefly an agricultural county, includes the high tract of Dartmoor, and (in the north) part of an elevated region called Exmoor, on the borders of Somerset. It has numerous seaports, some on the shore of the English Channel, and others on the side of the Bristol Channel.

EXETER (38), the capital, is a cathedral city, on the river Exe. Plymouth (84), and Devonport (55), are adjacent towns, situated on the fine estuary of Plymouth Sound, which is one of the chief stations for the British navy. About 14 miles to the south stands the famous *Eddystone Lighthouse*. Barnstaple (at the mouth of the river Tawe, which flows into Barnstaple Bay), Bideford, Tiverton, Tavistock, Dartmouth, Teignmouth, and Torquay are in this county.

9. **CORNWALL** is chiefly a mining county. Its tin mines have been worked from a very early age—many centuries before the Christian era. It has also numerous copper mines.

BODMIN (5), is the county town, but **Truro** (11), a cathedral city, ranks as the capital of the mining district. **Pensance, Falmouth, St. Austell**, and **Launceston** are among the other towns. *Stratton*, near the northern extremity of the county, was the scene of a victory gained by the Royalists over the Parliamentary forces in 1643.

The scilly Islands lie off the coast of Cornwall, at the entrance of the English Channel. Hugh Town, the capital, is on St. Mary's, the largest of the six inhabited islands.

V. SIX NORTH-MIDLAND COUNTIES.¹

1. STAFFORDSHIRE, a mining and manufacturing county, includes two coalfields—one (that of South Staffordshire) the seat of the iron and hardware manufacture : the other (in the northern part of the county) embracing the district of the Potteries.

The county town is STAFFORD (20), on the river Sow, an affluent of the Trent. But Wolverhampton (83), West Bromwich (60), Walsall (72), Bilston (23), and Wednesbury (25), within the coal and iron district of the south (and in the vicinity of Birmingham), are all of larger size. Stokeupon-Trent (25), Hanley (55), and Etruria, are in the Pottery district. Lichfield (8), towards the eastern border of the county, is a cathedral city. Burton-on-Trent (46) is famous for its ale and beer, enormous quantities of which are sent from this town to all parts of the world.

The site of the battle of Blore Heath (A.D. 1459) is within this county, about eleven miles to the north-west of Stafford, and close to the Shropshire border.

2. DERBYSHIRE is partly a manufacturing county, but embraces the rugged and elevated district of the Peak, which forms its northerly division. It has numerous lead and iron mines, and includes part of an extensive coalfield, the larger portion of which is within the adjacent county of York.

The chief town, DERBY (94), is on the river Derwent, which joins the Trent, and is a great seat of the silk manufacture, and particularly of silk stockings. Chesterfield, Belper, Wirksworth, Ashborne, Buxton, and Matlock are among the other towns. Matlock is noted for its warm mineral waters, and for the romantic beauties of its scenery.

3. NOTTINGHAMSHIRE is partly manufacturing, but is more generally an agricultural district.

The chief town, NOTTINGHAM (212), on the Trent, has extensive manufactures of cotton stockings and lace. Newark, Mansfield, and Worksop are smaller towns. A few miles from Newark, and near the south bank of the Trent, is the village of Stoke, the scene of a battle fought (A.D. 1487) between the army of Henry VII. and the followers of the impostor Lambert Simnel.

4. LEICESTERSHIRE has extensive manufactures, though a great portion of the county is agricultural.

The county town, LEICESTER (142), on the river Soar, which joins the Trent, is one of the most considerable of our midland towns, and is noted for its manufacture of woollen stockings and boots and shoes. Bosworth, near which the battle that terminated the Wars of the Roses was fought in 1483, is a few miles west of Leicester. Ashby-de-la-Zouch, in the northwest part of the county, has a small coalfield in its neighbourhood. The other towns are Loughborough, Hinckley, Melton Mowbray, Market Harborough, and Lutterworth.

The areas and population of the Six North-Midland Counties are as follows :-
 Staffordahire, 1,169 sq. m., pop. 1,053,273.
 Derbyshire, 1,029 sq. m., pop. 527,896.

Nottinghamshire, 824 sq. m., pop. 445,599.
 Leicestershire, 799 sq. m., pop. 573,693.
 Warwickshire, 834 sq. m., pop. 805,670.
 Worcestershire, 738 sq. m., pop. 485,753.

5. WARWICKSHIRE is a manufacturing county.

The county town, WARWICK (12), is on the banks of the Upper Avon. Adjoining it is Leamington, famous for its mineral waters. Birmingham (429), in the north-west part of Warwickshire, close to the Staffordshire border, is a large and populous town, the great centre of the iron trade. Coventry (53), further to the east, has a small coalfield in its vicinity, and was formerly noted for its manufacture of ribbons, but is now the principal seat of the cycle manufacture in the kingdom. Rugby (with its great public school), Nuneaton, and Stratford-on-Avon (the birthplace of Shakespeare), are in this county. The battle of Edgehill (A.D. 1642) was fought on the rising ground of that name within the southern extremity of Warwickshire.

6. WORCESTERSHIRE has extensive manufactures in its northerly division, but is chiefly an agricultural county.

Its capital, WORCESTER (42), on the Severn, is a cathedral city, and is noted for its porcelain and glass works, as well as for many events of historic fame_chief among them the victory of Cromwell over the adherents of Charles II. in 1651. Kidderminster (25), on the Stour, has extensive carpet factories. Dudley (48), further to the north, though belonging to this county, is locally within the iron and coal district of South Staffordshire, and is a populous seat of the hardware trade. Bromsgrove, Stourbridge, Stourport, and Evesham are within this county. Evesham (within the fertile vale of that name, watered by the Avon) was the scene of a battle between Prince Edward and the barons under Simon de Montfort in 1265.

VI.—EIGHT SOUTH-MIDLAND COUNTIES.¹

7. **OXFORDSHIRE** is also an agricultural county.

OXFORD (38), the capital of the county, and a cathedral city, at the junction of the Cherwell and the Thames, is a celebrated seat of learning, with one of the two ancient universities of England. Among the other towns are Banbury, Witney, Henley-on-Thames, and Woodstock. Chalgrove Field, the scene of a skirmish between the forces of Charles I. and the Parliament, in which Hampden was mortally wounded (1643), is in this county.

8. BUCKINGHAMSHIRE is entirely an agricultural county.

The town of Buckingham (3) lies on the Great Ouse, in the northern part of the county. The other towns are AYLESBURY (9), Great Marlow, and Wycombe. Aylesbury, the county town, is noted for the manufacture of condensed milk; Eton has a famous college.

9. MIDDLESEX is the most populous of the counties, owing to the larger portion of London being within its limits. It stretches along the north bank of the river Thames, by which it is divided from the neighbouring county of Surrey.

LONDON, with its suburbs, stretches over a vast space, and contains altogether nearly 51 millions of inhabitants, a far larger population than that of any other city on the globe. Besides its rank as the metropolis of

^{1.} The areas and population of the Eight Bouth-Midland Counties are as follows :--(1.) Orford, 755 sq. m., pop. 185(383: 5) Buckinghamahire, 753 sq. m., pop. 185(190; 4) Middleser, 253 sq. m., pop. 3251,753.

Hertfordshire, 633 sq. m., pop. 220,125.
 Bedfordshire, 460 sq. m., pop. 160,739.
 Huntingdonshire, 356 sq. m., pop. 367,778.
 Northsampionshire, 364 sq. m., pop. 30,639.
 Rutlandshire, 143 sq. m., pop. 30,639.

the kingdom, London is a great manufacturing and commercial city, a centre of art, literature, general refinement, and wealth. Westminster, which is now included within the westerly limits of the metropolis, was formerly separated from London by intervening fields. Southwark, the southwardly division of London, is to the south of the Thames, and within the county of Surrey. London contains the cathedral church of St. Paul's, and constitutes a bishop's see.

The towns of BRENTFORD (14), Uxbridge, and Staines are in this county; Brentford is the county town.

10. **HERTFORDSHIRE** is an agricultural county, and has no towns of large size.

HERTFORD (7), on the river Lea, is the county town. Near it is Ware, also on the Lea. St. Albans, Hitchin, Watford, Bishop Stortford, and Barnet are small places in this county. St. Albans was the scene of two of the battles fought during the Wars of the Roses (1455 and 1461). Barnet, which lies on the borders of Hertford and Middlesex, witnessed a more important event belonging to the same disastrous period—the battle in which the famous Earl of Warwick was slain, A.D. 1471.

11. BEDFORDSHIRE is a small agricultural county.

It has for its capital the town of **BEDFORD** (28), on the river Ouse. Near it is **Elstow**, the birthplace of John Bunyan. Among its other towns are **Luton** (30), **Dunstable**, Leighton Buzzard, and Woburn. Luton and Dunstable are noted for straw-plait and straw-hat manufacture.

12. **HUNTINGDONSHIRE** is an agricultural county, and great part of it is within the district of the Fens.

Its county town, HUNTINGDON (4), on the river Ouse, was the birthplace of Oliver Cromwell. St. Ives and St. Neots are small towns in this county.

13. NORTHAMPTONSHIRE is chiefly an agricultural county.

Its county town, NORTHAMPTON (61), on the river Nen, has, however, an extensive manufacture of boots and shoes. **Peterborough** (25), also on the Nen, is a cathedral city, and has considerable trade. **Wellingborough**, **Kettering**, and Daventry are smaller towns. Naseby, the scene of the decisive victory gained by Cromwell over the army of Charles I. (A.D. 1645), is in this county, twelve miles distant from Northampton, to the north-west. A battle was fought near the town of Northampton in 1460, during the Wars of the Roses.

14. **RUTLANDSHIRE**, the smallest of the English counties, is entirely agricultural.

It contains the small towns of OAKHAM (2) and Uppingham, the former of which is the county town. At Uppingham is an excellent high-class. grammar school.

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VI. TWELVE WELSH COUNTIES.¹

ANGLESEY is chiefly pastoral and agricultural, but has valuable deposits of copper ore and a small coalfield. Beaumaris is the county town, and Holyhead is an increasingly important packet station.

CARNARVONSHIRE, famous for its mountain and coast scenery, is also the centre of the *slate* industry. At Carnarvon, the county town, and Conway are fine castles, both built by Edward I. Bangor has an ancient cathedral. Llandudno is a rising watering-place near Great Orme's Head.

DENBIGHSHIRE includes the far-famed Vale of Clwyd and the charming river Dee. Wrexham and Ruabon are the mining, and Denbigh and Llanrwst the agricultural centres. Beddgelert and Ruthin are favourite tourist resorts.

FLINTSHIRE, the smallest of the Welsh counties, has valuable mines of coal and lead. Flint, Mostyn, Mold, Holywell, and Rhyl are the chief towns.

MERIONETHSHIRE is wild and hilly, but well wooded and with some fine scenery. There are large slate quarries at Festiniog and gold mines near Dolgelly. Bala, on Bala Lake, is a favourite tourist resort.

MONTGOMERYSHIRE, a wild and hilly county, is noted for the manufacture of Welsh flannel at Welshpool and other towns.

CARDIGANSHIRE is rich in minerals-lead, silver, zinc, and copper ores are largely exported from Aberystwith, the chief port. Cardigan is the county town.

RADNORSHIRE is the smallest, least populous and interesting of the six southern counties, and its few towns are small and unimportant. Presteign is the county town.

BRECKNOCKSHIRE, also an inland county, is wild and mountainous, with some fine scenery along the Wye and in the Beacon uplands. Brecknock, or Brecon, is the county town.

CARMARTHENSHIRE, the largest of the Welsh counties, is low towards the sea, rising inland into lofty hills and barren uplands. The county includes part of the great South Wales coalfields, and Llanelly is an important port. Carmarthen, the county town, is on the Towy.

PEMBROKESHIRE, the most westerly of the Welsh counties, possesses in Milford Haven, a magnificent natural harbour. Pembroke, Milford, Tenby, and Haverfordwest are the chief towns. St. David's and its cathedral are historically interesting, St. David being the patron saint of Wales.

GLAMORGANSHIRE is the most populous and important county in Wales, and has coal mines and ironworks on a scale of great magnitude. Merthyr Tydvil (58), Ystradyfodwg (88), Aberdare, Dowlais, and Neath are the great mining centres, and Cardiff (129) and Swansea (90) the chief ports, of this rich region. Swansea is the headquarters of the coppersmelting industry.

- Monigomeryshire, 778 sq. m., pop. 58,003.
 Cardiganshire, 692 sq. m., pop. 62,566.
 Radmorshire, 472 sq. m., pop. 37,791.
 Brecknockshire, 718 sq. m., pop. 57,691.
 Carmirthenshire, 928 sq. m., pop. 130, 57.41.
 Carmirthenshire, 938 sq. m., pop. 130, 57.45.
 Carmirganshire, 507 sq. m., pop. 657,147.

^{1.} The areas and population of the 12 Welsh Counties are as follows :--

 ⁽¹⁾ Angleser, 302 a; ..., pop. 50,079.
 (2) Carnarvonshire, 677 sq. m., pop. 118,225.
 (3) Denbighshire, 664 sq. m., pop. 117,560.
 (4) Filntshire, 252 a; ..., pop. 77,188.
 (5) Merionethshire, 601 sq. m., pop. 49,204.

1. Write out a short general description of the British Isles.

2. How is England bounded?

3. Name the principal capes upon (a) the east coast of England, (b) the south coast, (c) the west coast.

4. Which are the extreme eastern, southern, and western points of England ?

5. Name, in successive order, the principal gui/s and other inlets and straits on the coasts of England.

6. Give a few particulars of the principal Eng-lish islands.

1140 seconds. 7. What tracts of high ground occur in succession upon the western side of England and Wales, proceeding from north to south? 8. Name the highest moustaises in England and Wales, with their height in feet.

9. In what counties of England are the follow-ing -Dartmoor, the Chiltern Hills, the Wrekin, the Mondip Hills, the South Downs, and the Wolds?

10. In what counties are the Clee Hills the Malvern Hills, the Cotwold Hills, the Black-down Hills, Exmoor, and Salibury Plain ? 11. Name a few of the larger plains and valleys of England.

12. Enumerate the principal rivers on (a) the east coast from north to south, (b) the south coast, (c) the west coast.

13. Describe briefly the principal rivers of Eng-land and Wales.

14. Name the principal English lakes, and give particulars as to their size. 15. What parts of the English and Welsh coasts are distinguished by the superior mild-ness of their winter climate?

16. What minerals occur in England and Wales?

17. In which of the English counties do we find iron, salt, and slate?

18, Name some of the tress that are native to the English soil.

19. In which parts of England is the industry of the people chieffy agricultural.

20. What grains are most extensively grown in England, and in what localities?

21. What three articles form the great staples of manufacturing industry in Britain? Whence is each principally derived?

22. What three districts are respectively the great seats of the cotton, woollan, and iron manufactures; and what town is the chief in-dustrial centre in each?

23. What are the characteristic features of the foreign trade of Britain, as to the general nature of its imports and exports ?

24. From what countries are the following imports chiefly derived :--tes, coffee, sugar, tim-ber, wines and spirits, tobacco, and hides?

25. To what countries are the largest quan-tities of British manufactures exported ?

26. Say what you know of the shipping of the kingdom and means of communication.

27. How many counties are there in England? Which is the largest of the number? Which the smallest?

28. Name (a) the six northern counties ; (b)

1. It is hardly necessary to observe that ques-tions of this kind may be either extended or varied at the disorction of the teacher. Those that are given above are intended rather to exemplify the kind of treatment of which the .subject is susceptible, than designed to indicate

the six western counties; (c) the five eastern counties; (d) the nine southern counties; and (e) the fourteen midland counties,

29. Name the chief towns in the counties of Northumberland and Durham.

30. What are the chief towns within the West Riding of Yorkshire, and by what branches of industry are they distinguished?

31. Name the chief towns of Lancashire, dis-tinguishing the county town.

32. Upon what rivers are the following towns:-Newcastle, Carliale, Lancester, Preston, Man-chester, Shrewsbury, and Chester?

33. Name the county town of each of the six western counties, with the river on which it stands

34. Name the county town of each of the five eastern counties, with the rivers on which they stand

35. Name the nine southern counties, with the chief town of each.

38. In what counties are the following towns :--Oswestry, Abergavenny, Taunton, Wells, Stroud, Boston, King's Lynn, Yarmouth, Ely, Ipswich, and Colchester?

37. On what river does Norwich stand, and of what branch of manufacturing industry is it the seat?

38. In what counties are Maidstone, Guild-ford, Windsor, Lewes, Portsmouth, Newbury, Weymouth, and Salisbury?

39. Name the towns that were formerly known as the Cinque Ports. In what counties are they situated?

40. On what rivers are Maidstone, Winchester, Reading, Salisbury, Dorchester, and Exeter?

41. By what branch of industry is Cornwall distinguished, and what towns does it contain?

42. Name the metropolitan county. towns, besides London, does it contain? What

44. In what counties are Birmingham, Kidder-minster, Dudley, Stourbridge, Lichfield, Ches-terfield, and Newark?

45. Of what branch of manufacturing industry is Birmingham the centre, and what adjacent towns are within the same manufacturing district?

46. In what county is Stoke-upon-Trent, and of what branch of industry is it the seat?

47. Of what manufactures are the towns of Nottingham, Derby, and Leicester the respective seats?

43. Upon what river is each of the following towns situated :- Derby, Leicester, Warwick, Peterborough, Bedford, and Nottingham?

49. In what counties of England are the sites of the following battles:--Hastings, Blore Heath, Towton, Bosworth, and Stoke?

Fod In what counties are the following :-Flodden, Edgehill, Chalgrove Field, Marston Moor, Naseby, and Sedgemoorf 51. Name the six counties of North Wales, with the chief town of each.

52. Name the six counties of South Wales, with the chief town of each.

any definite limit to exercises of this descrip-tion. The more thoroughly such a mode of examination is pursued-always with and on the map-the larger will be the amount of real knowledge gained by the learner.

SCOTLAND.

SCOTLAND¹ is the northern portion of the island of Great Britain.

BOUNDARIES.-Scotland is bounded on the north and west by the Atlantic Ocean; on the south by England and part of the Irish Sea : and on the east by the North Sea.

Scotland is divided from-

England by the Solway Firth, the Cheviot Hills, and the Tweed. Ireland by the North Channel. Denmark and Norway by the North Sea.

EXTENT.-The area of Scotland (inclusive of its numerous islands) is over 30,000 square miles, or a little more than half that of England and Wales. The mainland alone embraces an area of about 27,000 square miles.

The greatest length, 2 from Dunnet Head to the Mull of Galloway, is 288 m. The greatest breadth, from Buchan Ness to Ardnamurchan Point, is 175 m. The least breadth, between the Firths of Forth and Clyde, is only 32 miles.

COASTS.—The coasts of Scotland are more indented than those of England, especially on the west^{*} and north, and have a total length of not less than 2,500 miles, equivalent to 1 mile of coast to every 12 square miles of area. The broader indentations by which the sea penetrates the land are generally called *Firths*—the narrower inlets bear the name of Lochs." Owing to its numerous indentations, no part of the mainland is more than 40 miles from the sea.

From the Solway Firth to Loch Linnhe the shores are generally low, but from the latter north to Cape Wrath and east to Dunnet Head the coast is formed by high cliffs. The east coast, from Tarbet Ness to the Firth of Forth, is on the whole flat and generally sandy, but from St. Abb's Head to the Tweed it is bold and rocky. The principal features to be noted are—

1. Capes.—The principal capes are—

(1.) On the north, Dunnet Head and Cape Wrath.

(2.) On the east, Duncansbay Head, Tarbet Ness, Kinnaird's Head. Buchan Ness, Buddon Ness, Fife Ness, and St. Abb's Head.

(3.) On the west, the Butt of Lewis, Ardnamurchan Point, the Mulls of Cantire, and Corsewall Point.

(4.) On the south, the Mull of Galloway and Burrow Head.

Scotland, the "land of the Scots." The Scots were a Calify tribe, from the north of Irelard the pressed over and settled in Cantre are an entry of the Scots and gradually extended their reconquests until, in 845, the king of the Scots ruled over nearly the whole of Scotland north of the Clyde and Porth. The name "Scotland" came into general use about the year 860. The native Picts and their descendants, the modern Highlanders, call the country Albyn. To the Scots are all the country Albyn. To the S. "The weetern flords are morely submerged land-valleys." See Prof. Geikie's "Physical

Features of Scotland" in the "Scottish Geo-graphical Magazine," vol. i., p. 31. 4. The term lock is uniformly given to lakes in Scotland, as it also is to the narrow inlets of the sea upon the western and northern coasts, such as Loch Fyne and others. There is, how-ever, an important difference between the two. The inland locks, such as Loch Lomond, have fresh water, like the lakes of England and other ountries. The lochs that lie along the coast, such as Loch Fyne, are arms of the sea, and consist, consequently, of sait water. 5. Mull, Goel. maol, a headland.

The most northerly point is Dunnet Head. The most southerly point is the Mull of Galloway. The most easterly point is Buchan Ness, The most westerly point is Ardnamurchan Point.

2. Inlets.—The most important inlets are :—

(1.) On the north, Dunnet Bay, the Kyle¹ of Tongue, and Loch Eriboll.

 On the south, Glenluce Bay, Wigtown Bay, and the Solway Firth.
 On the sast, the Firth of Forth, the Firth of Tay, the Moray Firth, Cromarty Firth, and Dornoch Firth.

(4.) On the west, Loch Broom, Loch Linnhe, Loch Fyne, the Firth of Clyde. Loch Long, and Loch Ryan.

Channels and Sounds.—The principal are :— Pentland Firth, between the Orkneys and the mainland. Sound of Sleat, between Skye and the mainland. sound of Mull, between the Isle of Mull and the mainland. Sound of Jura, between Jura and the mainland. The Minch, between Lewis and the mainland. The Little Minch, between the Outer Hebrides and Skye. Sound of Islay, between Jura and Islay, North Channel, between Scotland and Ireland.

ISLANDS.-Scotland has above 700 islands,² forming four distinct groups, and having a total area of about 3,700 square miles.

1. The Orkneys lie immediately to the north of the mainland of Great Britain, and are divided from it by the Pentland Firth. There are altogether 67 islands, of which the principal are Pomona (or Mainland), Hoy, North and South Ronaldsha, and Westra. Kirkwall on the eastern, and Stromness on the western, coast of Pomona, are the largest towns.

2. The Shetlands³ lie north-east of the Orkneys, and consist of about 100 islands, of which 24 are inhabited. The largest islands are Mainland, Yell, and Unst. Chief town, Lerwick (see page 77).

3. The Hebrides include a great number of islands lying off the west side of Scotland, and surrounded by the waters of the Atlantic Ocean. Some of them, as the islands of Skye, Mull, and Jura, are near the mainland, and only divided from it by narrow channels. Others, as Lewis, North Uist, and South Uist, are further off to seaward. The channel between Lewis and the mainland is called the Minch. Lewis, Skye, Mull, Jura, and Islay are the largest of the Hebrides. The small islets of Iona and Staffa, lying off the west side of Mull, are famous-Iona for its remains of ancient churches, and Staffa for its basaltic cavern.

4. Islands in the Firth of Clyde, viz., two large islands, Arran and Bute, and the islets of Great and Little Cumbray.

MOUNTAINS.—In Scotland, as in England, the higher grounds lie chiefly on the western side of the country. But mountains cover a much larger proportional extent of Scotland than is the case with the English hills, and they reach a greater height. England is chiefly a level country, and mountains are exceptional to its general character; Scotland is principally mountainous, and its plains are of limited extent.

^{1.} Eyle, Gaelic, a ferry. 2. A few detached islets off the coast of Boot-land deserve notice. The Base Rock and Inci-keith are in the Firth of Forth; the Bell Rock is about fourteen miles east of the mouth of the Firth of Tay; Atless Craig, in the Firth of Clyde.

rises over 1,000 feet above the sea; the Pentland Skerries, in the firth of that name. 3. About midway between the Shetlands and the Orkneys is *Fast Island*, on which the ad-miral of the Spanish Armada was wrecked in 1598

Scotland is naturally divided into the Highlands and the Lowlands. The Highlands embrace the northern and western portions of the country; the Lowlands, its southern and eastern districts. The Lowlands of Sociand, however, are by no means level. They embrace numerous hilly tracts, but the hills are less elevated, and of more rounded form, with broader valleys between, than is the case in the Highlands.

The division between the Highlands and the Lowlands is marked by a broad plain called Strathmore,1 which stretches across the country in the direction of north-east and south-wats, from near Stonehaven on the North Sea, to Dumbarton on the Clyde. A narrower valley,² called Glenmore, extends through the Highland region, and forms a complete natural division across the country.

The mountains of Scotland are naturally divisible into three groups or systems-the Northern, Central, and Southern Highlands.

1. The Northern Highlands include the mountain ranges and groups north of Glenmore. The highest points are Ben' Wyvis, near Cromarty Firth, 3,400 feet above the sea ; Ben Attow, 4,000 feet.

2. The Central Highlands, as the Grampians, the highest mountains of Scotland, may be called, stretch across the country in the direction of east and west. Ben Nevis, which is the highest of the Grampians, reaches 4,406 feet above the sea, and is the highest mountain, not only in Scotland, but in the British Islands. The other principal heights are Ben Macchui, 4,300 feet; Cairntoul, 4,200 feet; Ben Avon, 4,000 feet; Ben More, 3,900 feet; Ben Lomond, 3,200 feet.

To the south of the Grampians are the minor hill-ranges which form the southern boundary of Strathmore, and known as the Sidlaw Hills, the Ochil Hills, and the Campsie Fells.

3. The Southern Highlands include the Cheviot Hills, the Moffat Hills, and the Lowthers, and also the Pentland, Moorfoot, and Lammermoor Hills.

The highest points are :- Broadlaw, 2,700 feet, and Hart Fell, 2,260 feet, in the Lowther Hills; Carnethy, in the Pentlands, 1,800 feet; and Says Law, in the Lammermoor Hills, 1,750 feet.

PLAINS.—Owing to the broken nature of the country there are no plains of any great extent. The principal are the Plain of Caithness, in the extreme north ; the Plain of Cromarty, along both sides of the firth of that name ; Strathmore, between the Grampians and the Sidlaw and Ochil Hills ; the Carse of Gowrie, between the Sidlaw Hills and the river Tay.

Besides the above, we may notice also the valleys or dales of southern Scotland and the glens of the Highlands. Of the former the most noted are Clydesdale, Tweeddale, Teviotdale, Eskdale, through which flow the rivers so named. Of the latter the most important is Glenmore, which extends right across the country from Loch Linnhe to the head of Moray Firth.

RIVERS.-Most of the larger rivers of Scotland belong to the east side of the country, and discharge their waters into the North Sea. The chief of them are the Tweed, Forth, Tay, Dee, Don, Spey, and

mors (Welsh, massr), great; Ben More, great mountain; Ben Dearg, red mountain; Ben Wyset, mountain of terror; Ben Alcos, rush mountain; Ben Macdhai, black swine moun-tain (gf. Welsh, mock, swine, and das, black); Ben Newis, mountain of death; Cairngorra, blue mountain.

^{1.} That is, "the great strath," 3. It is through this valley that the Caledonian Oranal has been formed, by joining the waters of the lakes which occupy a large portion of its bed. Glemmore means "the great glem." 5. The following stymologies of the names of Highland peaks may be useful :- Dée, mountain;

Ness. The principal rivers on the west and south-west coasts are the Clyde, the Ayr, and the Nith.

1. The **Tweed** rises in the Lowthers, and has a *length* of 96 miles and a *drainage area* of 1,870 square miles. It is noted for its salmon fisheries, and is unnavigable above Berwick.

2. The Forth rises on Ben Lomond, and at Alloa falls into the firth to which it gives its name. Its windings form the "Links of Forth." Length, 60 miles ; drainage area, 645 square miles. The Firth of Forth is about 50 miles long, and is navigable for the largest vessels. The Forth Bridge spans it at Queensferry.

3. The **Tay** is the largest river in Scotland, and carries more water to the sea than any other river of Great Britain. It has a length of 105 miles, and drains an area of about 2,400 square miles. It is navigable to Perth.

4. The Clyde, 98 miles in length, rises in the Lowthers, and drains about 1,580 square miles. Near Lanark are the celebrated "Falls of the Clyde." The Clyde is navigable to Glasgow, and is commercially the most important of the Scottish rivers, being sufficiently deep in its lower part to admit ships of the largest size.

5. The Dee has its source on the Cairngorm, 4,060 feet above the sea, considerably higher than any other British river. Length, 87 miles.

6. The Spey, 96 miles long, is the most rapid and destructive of British rivers, and is unnavigable throughout.

LAKES. — Scotland, especially its Highland region, abounds in lakes. Most of them are of long and narrow shape, and of great beauty. The principal are Loch Lomond, Loch Katrine, Loch Tay, Loch Awe, Loch Ness, Loch Maree, and Loch Leven.¹

1. Loch Lomond is the largest lake in Scotland, and also in Great Britain. It is 24 miles long, 7 miles broad, and has an area of 45 square miles. It contains about 30 islands, and is unquestionably "the pride of our lakes," axceeding all others in extent and beauty.

2. Loch Katrine, 9 miles long and ²/₄ mile broad, is the chief attraction of the beautiful tract known as the *Trossachs*,² and is the scene of Scott's "Lady of the Lake."

3. Loch Awe, 23 miles long and nearly 11 miles broad, is surrounded by lofty mountains, and is one of the most beautiful of Scottish lakes.

CLIMATE.—The climate of Scotland is slightly colder than that of England, owing to its more northerly situation. Within the Highlands, especially, the winter is more severe; rain is also more abundant there than in the Lowland region.

The mean annual temperature of Edinburgh is 47.1°; Aberdeen, 49.1°; and Wick, 46.9°. The mean winter temperature of the Shetlands is about the same as that of the Isle of Wight. The annual *rainfall* is from 22 to 33 inches on the east coast, and from 30 to 44 inches on the west coast.

NATURAL PRODUCTIONS.—The natural productions of Scotland are the same as those of England, with a few exceptions.

1. Animals.—Same as those of England. Deer, however, are much more abundant, chieffy in the game forests of the Highlands. Clydesdale is noted for a fine breed of *horses*, and the Shetland Islands for the hardy "Shetland" ponies.

^{1.} On one of the islands in Loch Leven stood the castle in which Mary Queen of Scots was imprisoned (1567-6). 2. That is, narrows.

2. Plants — The vegetation consists for the most part of plants of hardier growth than those of England. The Scotch fir, and other members of the pine tribe, are abundant upon the mountain-sides, and the heather imparts its purple colour to their lower slopes. Several of the richer fruits and plants that thrive on the southern coasts of England (as the peach and apricot) will not come to perfection in Scotland; and the hardier grains-oats and barley-are those most generally grown. Fine crops of wheat, however, are grown in many districts of Southern Scotland.

3. Minerals.—The mineral resources of Scotland are very great. As in England, coal and iron are the staples of its wealth in this regard, and they form the basis of its manufacturing prosperity. Coal and iron occur in vast abundance within an extensive district of the Lowlands-that which stretches across the country from Fifeshire on the east side to Ayrshire on the west, embracing the extensive plain between the Firths of Forth and Clyde. Lead is worked in some districts of Southern Scotland. Good building-stone also occurs there. Granite is obtained from the Grampians, and also from the Isle of Arran, and some other localities.

INHABITANTS.-Scotland is much less populous than England -both absolutely (that is, according to the actual number of its inhabitants) and relatively (or in the ratio of population to extent of In 1891 it contained 4,000,000 inhabitants. The Lowland surface). division of the country is much more populous than the Highlands.

The number in 1881 was 3,735,573, an average of only 125 to the square mile; in 1891, the average had risen to 134 per square mile; a little more than a fourth of that of England, and considerably lower than that of Wales or Ireland.

Race and Language.—The people of the Highlands and the Lowlands are two distinct races, speaking different tongues. The language of the Low-lands resembles the English tongue; that of the Highlands is a distinct dialect, called the *Gaelic*. But the Highland population are gradually growing accustomed to the use of the English language, and their native tongue becomes, with each succeeding generation, less prevalent.1

INDUSTRIAL PURSUITS. *-Scotland is principally a manufacturing and commercial country; but agriculture, though necessarily limited,³ is in a flourishing condition.

1. Agriculture is perhaps nowhere more skilfully practised than in the Lowlands. Only one-fourth of the country is arable, and about onehalf of this is in permanent pasture or in grass (clover, &c.). The chief objects of culture are oats, barley, rye, wheat, potatoes, and turnips. But the staple crop throughout Scotland is oats. Turnips are largely grown in Haddington, and potatoes throughout the eastern counties.

2. In the Highlands, the rearing of cattle, with the extensive fisheries⁴ pursued off the coasts, are the principal branches of industry. In the southern Lowlands, also, great numbers of cattle are reared, chiefly for the supply of the English markets.

^{1.} It is commonly supposed that the Lowland Scotch is merely a dialect of, or a corruption of, the Kneika language. But while the latter is based chiefly upon the Anglo-Saxon, the former is essentially derived from the Norse or Scandi-narian. Now both the Anglo-Saxon and Norse were branches of the same old Peutonic ; hence the similarity between the Lowland Scotch and the English. The Gasie is a Celtic dialect, and is allied to the Weiss.

^{2.} The percentage of persons engaged in the various industries in Scotland is as follows:-Apriculture, 32 per cent: manufactures, 35 per cent: missing, 17 per cent: commerce, 104 per cent: professional domestic, dc., 144 per cent. 3. The productive area of Scotland is only 23-8 per cent of the whole area. Value of the shole area.

3. Manufactures are largely pursued in Lowland Scotland, chiefly within the coal¹ and iron district between the Clyde and the Forth, and in the counties of Fife and Forfar upon the eastern coast.

The cotton manufacture, which is the first in order of importance, characterises Glasgow, and the neighbouring tract of country on the western side of the island, within the counties of Lanark and Renfrew; the *linen* and *jute* manufacture is found chiefly in the neighbourhood of the east coast—at Dundee and Arbroath, in Forfarshire, and Dunfermline, in Fifeshire. The *woollen* manufacture facture is pursued in many parts of the Lowlands, especially in the counties of Aberdeen, Stirling, Ayr, Fife, Renfrew, Forfar, and Lanark, and the making of tweeds, tartans, &c., centres in the towns of Galashiels, Selkirk, Hawick, in the basin of the Tweed. Paisley is famous for its shawl and thread manufacture.

Shipbuilding, principally iron and steel steamships, is extensively carried on at Glasgow, Greenock, and Port-Glasgow.

4. Commerce.—The commerce of Scotland resembles that of England, and is considerable and rapidly increasing. The *imports* are chiefly raw materials for manufacture and colonial produce; the *exports* are manufactured goods and agricultural produce, coal, iron, and fish.

The commercial metropolis of Scotland is Glasgow. Other important ports are Leith, Greenock, Aberdeen, Dundee, Irvine, and Montrose.²

5. Internal Communication.—There are excellent roads, even in the Highlands, several canals, and over 3,000 miles of railways.

1. Roads.—There are nearly 4,000 miles of excellent *turnpike roads*. Several of those in the Highlands were constructed after the collapse of the rebellion of 1745.

2. Canals.—The two principal canals are the *Forth and Clyde Canal*, connecting the Clyde near Renfrew with the Forth near Grangemoth; the *Caledonian Canal* through Glemore, the three locks in which are joined by about twenty-three miles of cuttings, thus affording a passage from the Atlantic to the North Sea without rounding the northern coast of Scotland; and the *Criman Canal*, across the peninsula of Cantire, joining Loch Fyne and the ocean.

3. Railways .- The principal main lines of railway are :--

(1.) The Caledonian, from Carlisle to Edinburgh, Glasgow, and Aberdeen.

(2.) The North British, from Berwick to Glasgow, Edinburgh, Dundee, and Aberdeen.

(3.) The Glasgow and South-Western, from Glasgow to Carlisle, with branches to Portpatrick, Girvan, and Ardrossan.

(4.) The Highland, from Perth to Thurso and Wick.

(5.) The Great North of Scotland, from Aberdeen to Peterhead, Banff, and Lossiemouth.

COUNTIES and **TOWNS**.—Scotland is divided into thirtytwo counties. They are of very unequal sizes, more so than the English counties. Clackmannanshire, the smallest, is only one-third part the size of Rutland. Inverness-shire, the largest among them, is nearly four-fifths the size of Yorkshire.

Thirteen of the counties are within that portion of Scotland which lies to the south of the Firths of Forth and Clyde, and are entirely within the Lowlands. The names of these thirteen are Edinburgh, Linlithgow, Haddington, Berwick, Roxburgh, Selkirk, Peebles, Dumfries, Kirkcudbright, Wigtown, Ayr, Lanark, and Renfrew. Three of the counties that are to the northward

^{1.} In 1880, 24; million tons of coal were produced. 2. The gross receipts of customs in Scotland, in the United Kingdom, in 1890-1, amounted to 199 1890, was 15 millions, rather more than one-half millions.

of the Firth of Forth are also wholly within the Lowland region, namely, Fife, Kinross, and Clackmannan, 1

In all, therefore, sixteen of the counties are comprised entirely within the Lowlands. Of the others, several are partly Lowland counties and partly within the Highlands. All the counties that extend along the east coast of the country, Perth, Forfar, Kincardine, &c., belong in part to the Lowland region; but they stretch westward into the rugged mountain region of the interior, and their larger portion falls within the Highland limits.

Bute, Argyle, Inverness, Ross and Cromarty, and Sutherland are almost exclusively Highland counties. Stirling, Dumbarton, Perth, Forfar, Kincardine, Aberdeen, Banff, Elgin, Nairn, and Caithness are partly Highland. Buteshire consists of the two large islands of Arran and Bute, in the Firth of Clyde, with a few smaller islets.

The Orkney and Shetland Islands form a distinct county. Of the Hebrides, some belong to Argyle, some to Inverness, and others to Ross and Cromarty.

I. THIRTEEN SOUTH-LOWLAND COUNTIES.²

1. EDINBURGH, or Mid-Lothian, is distinguished by its agricultural industry, and also as the metropolitan county of Scotland. It is level and well cultivated in the north, but hilly in the south.

The city of EDINBURGH (261) occupies a striking situation near the shore of the Firth of Forth (about two miles distant), and a commanding rock which rises high above the Old Town is crowned by its castle-a strong fortress of ancient date, and the scene of numerous events of importance in Scottish annals. A broad valley forms a well-marked natural division between the New Town of Edinburgh and the older portion of the city. Holyrood, the ancient palace of the Scottish sovereigns, is within the Old Town, at the opposite extremity to the Castle Hill. Edinburgh is the seat of one of the Scottish Universities, and ranks as the literary metropolis of the north. Arthur's Seat, a rocky hill rising to 822 feet above the sea, overlooks the city from the south-east.

Leith (68), on the coast of the neighbouring firth, forms the port of Edinburgh, and is joined to that city by continuous lines of building. On either side of Leith are numerous thriving fishing and trading ports-Newhaven and Granton to the westward, Portobello and Musselburgh on its eastern The battle of Pinkie (1547) was fought in the neighbourhood of side. Musselburgh, near the right bank of the little river Esk, which enters the firth at that point. Dalkeith, in the interior of the county, is a small town at the junction of the two arms of the river Esk.

2. LINLITHGOW, or West-Lothian, is a small agricultural county, but its surface is generally irregular.

In several parts of Scotland the nucleat territorial names of particular districts are still familiarly used. Thus the three counties that extend along the southern shore of the Firth of Porth are known as the Lobhams—Edinburgh corresponding to Mid-Lothian, Haddington to East-Lothian, and Linithayov to West-Lothian. The counties of Kirkendbright and Wigtown, in the south-west, are popularly known as *Galoway*. Forfarshire is still often referred to by its former name of *Anguy* (or Murray).
 The areas and population (in 1291) of the thirteen South-Lowland Counties are asfollows:-

- Edinburgh, 863 sq. m., pop. 444,053.
 Linlithgur, 109 sq. m., pop. 52,789.
 Haddington, 270 sq. m., pop. 87,789.
 Barwick, 460 sq. m., pop. 83,895.
 Koxburgh, 655 sq. m., pop. 83,724.
 Berkirk, 257 sq. m., pop. 74,508.
 Dumfries, 1,062 sq. m., pop. 74,508.
 Kirkeudbright, 557 sq. m., pop. 39,978.
 Wirkown, 455 sq. m., pop. 24,509.
 Wirkown, 455 sq. m., pop. 24,509.
 Linark, 881 sq. m., pop. 146,787.
 Lenark, 881 sq. m., pop. 26,427.
 Renfrew, 244 sq. m., pop. 290,790.

Its chief town, LINLITHGOW (4), possesses the remains of an ancient palace, in which Mary Queen of Scots was born in 1542. Bathgate is a thriving town in the interior. Bo'ness trades in coal and iron.

3. **HADDINGTON**, or East-Lothian, is agriculturally the foremost county in Scotland, being for the most part level and fertile.

The town of HADDINGTON (4), its capital, stands on the river Tyne—a less important stream than the English river of that name. Dunbar, a thriving port on the coast of this county, is of great note in Scottish aunals, frequently besieged, and alternately in Scottish and English hands. Two battles fought in the immediate vicinity add to the chequered interest of its fortunes—one a victory gained by Edward I. over the army of Baliol in 1296, the other a more important victory which Cromwell obtained over the Scottish Army in 1650. North Berwick, on the coast of Haddington, lies at the entrance of the Firth of Forth. Prestonpans, also on the shore of the same firth, and a few miles to the east of Edinburgh, is noteworthy for the defeat of the English forces by the troops of Prince Charles Edward in 1745.

4. **BERWICK** (or the Merse, as it is called) adjoins the English border, reaching from the Lammermoor Hills to the banks of the Tweed. Its industry is chiefly agricultural.

The county town is **GREENLAW**. The other towns are **Duns**, **Coldstream**, **Earlston**, and **Eyemouth**—the last a seaport situated a short distance to the south of St. Abb's Head.

5. **BOXBURGH** stretches from the banks of the Tweed to the summits of the Cheviot Hills, including the fine pastoral district of Teviotdale—watered by the river Teviot, an affluent of the Tweed. It is level in the north, but hilly in the south. Its industries comprise the woollen manufacture, agriculture, and the rearing of cattle and sheep.

JEDBURGH (3), its county town, is on the little stream of the Jed, which joins the Teviot. A few miles north-west of Jedburgh is Anorum Moor, where the Earl of Angus defeated an English army in 1545. Hawick (19), in upper Teviotdale, manufactures "tweeds" and other woollen goods. Kelso (4), on the Tweed, has a fine abbey. Melrose, famous for the ruins of its well-known abbey, and Abbotsford, formerly the residence of Sir Walter Scott, are in this county, both on the south bank of the Tweed.

6. SELKIRK, a pastoral and hilly region, includes the tract of country called Ettrick Forest, watered by the river Ettrick, which joins the Tweed, receiving on its way the tributary stream of the Yarrow.

The county town, SELKIEK (6), is on the right bank of the Ettrick. On the opposite bank of the river is *Philiphaugh*, the scene of Montrose's surprise and defeat in 1645. The town of Galashiels (17), to the northward of the Tweed (on the little river Gala), has a flourishing manufacture of woollen cloths.

7. **PEEBLES**, a pastoral and hilly region, embraces the upper portion of Tweeddale, and is entirely agricultural.

The county town, PEEBLES (5), is on the north bank of the Tweed. Innerleithen (the St. Ronan's Well of Sir Walter Scott), formerly much visited for the sake of its mineral waters, is further to the east, at the point where the little stream of the Leithen joins the Tweed.

8. **DUMFRIES**, which is agricultural in its lower grounds, and pastoral towards the interior, includes the greater part of Nithsdale (or the valley of the river Nith, which enters the Solway Firth), and also the valleys of the Annan and the Esk—Annandale and Eskdale.

The town of **DUMFRIES** (17), its capital, stands on the left bank of the Nith; it is the largest town in the south-west portion of Scotland, and a great market for agricultural produce. Annan and Moffat are small places in this county.

9. **KIRKOUDBRIGHT** is hilly and pastoral in the north, and agricultural along the shores of the Solway Firth on the south.

Its county town, **KIRKCUDBRIGHT** (3), lies near the mouth of the river Dee, which enters the Solway Firth.

10. WIGTOWN, at the south-west extremity of Scotland, is also a pastoral region.

The small town of WIGTOWN (2), its capital, is on the shore of Wigtown Bay. Stranzer, at the head of Loch Ryan, and Portpatrick, on the shore of the North Channel, are small towns. Portpatrick is only 22 miles distant from Donaghadee, on the coast of Ireland.

11. **AYRSHIRE**, sometimes called the "Dairy of Scotland," embraces a pastoral tract of country in the south and east, but includes a manufacturing and coal-mining district in the north and along the sea-coast.

Its county town, AYE (25), at the mouth of the river Ayr, has considerable trade. Robert Burns was born in its vicinity—a short way to the southward, in a cottage beside the stream of the Doon. Kilmarnock, on the river Irvine, has large ironworks and extensive woollen manufactures. Ardrossan, Saltcoats, Irvine, Troon, and Girvan are thriving seaports.

12. **LANARKSHIRE** includes Clydesdale, the upper part of which is a pastoral region. But its lower portion is a populous seat of manufacturing and commercial industry.

GLASGOW (565, or with suburbs 771), on the banks of the Clyde, within the north-western border of Lanarkshire, is the centre at once of the cotton manufactures, the iron trade, and the foreign commerce of Scotland. It is, indeed, the commercial metropolis of North Britain, and is greatly superior to any other city of Scotland in number of inhabitants. Glasgow is, besides, the seat of an ancient university. A short distance to the southward is the battlefield of *Langside*, the scene of the last contest on behalf of the ill-fated Mary Queen of Scots (A.D. 1568).

Airdrie, to the east of Glasgow, is in the midst of extensive coal and iron works, and has also cotton and other manufactures. Hamilton and Lanark are smaller towns. Below Hamilton, on the Clyde, is Bothwell Bridge, the scene of a well-known skirmish between the Covenanters and the royal forces in 1679. Lanark (5), in upper Clydesdale, is the county town. Below it are the picturesque Falls of the Clyde, formed by the descent of the river over successive ledges of rock.

13. **RENFREWSHIRE** is manufacturing and commercial. It includes part of the coal and iron district, and possesses several flourishing ports on the lower Clyde.

RENFREW (6), the county town, is small and otherwise unimportant. Paisley (66), seven miles west of Glasgow, shares in the manufacturing industry of that city. Port-Glasgow (15) and Greenock (63) are both on the Clyde ; the latter is the seat of an extensive foreign trade. Johnstone, south-west of Paisley, is an inland town.

II. SEVEN NORTH-LOWLAND COUNTIES.¹

1. DUMBARTONSHIRE (or Lennox) is Highland and pastoral in its northerly division, including the chief part of the shores of Loch Lomond. In the south it reaches to the banks of the Olyde. A detached portion of the county is in the plain further to the eastward.

The chief town, DUMBARTON (13), stands on the Clyde at the mouth of the little river Leven, which forms the outlet of Loch Lomond. The Vale of Leven is a busy scene of manufacturing industry, with cotton-works, &c. Kirkintilloch, a manufacturing town, is to the north-east of Glasgow.

2. STIRLINGSHIRE is manufacturing and trading in its eastern division, which is within the Lowland region; but its westerly por-tion stretches into the Highlands. The fertile "Carse of Stirling" is highly cultivated.

The county town, STIRLING (17), stands on the south bank of the Forth; its fine castle, on a lofty rock which overlooks the town, has been the scene of many events important in Scottish annals. Stirling has manufactures of woollen and cotton fabrics. St. Ninians and Bannockburn, both populous villages in its immediate vicinity (forming, in fact, suburbs of the town), also possess extensive woollen manufactures. Bannockburn recalls the memory of Bruce's great victory over the English in 1314. Falkirk, in this county, is a great coal and iron centre, and is historically noteworthy on account of two engagements which took place in its vicinity-one, a victory gained by Edward I. over the Scottish army in 1298; the other, a defeat sustained by the royal forces at the hands of Prince Charles Ed-ward's followers in 1746. Kilsyth, on the southern border of the county, was the scene of Montrose's brilliant (though fruitless) victory in 1646.

3. CLACKMANNANSHIRE is enclosed by the counties of Perth and Stirling, and is the smallest county in Scotland. It is partly within the coalfield.

^{1.} The areas and population of the Seven North-Lowiand Counties are as follows:--(1) Durnharton, 841 eq. m. pop. 84511. (2) Stirling, 447 eq. m., pop. 125,604. (2) Claschmannan, 47 eq. m., pop. 22,433.

 ^(4.) Kinross, 72 sq. m., pop. 6,289.
 (5.) Fife, 492 sq. m., pop. 187,330.
 (6.) Forfar, 876 sq. m., pop. 277,788.
 (7.) Kincardine, 383 sq. m., pop. 35,647.

Alloa (10), its largest town, is on the left bank of the Forth, and has some trade in coal and iron. CLACKMANNAN is the county town. Alva has manufactures of shawls and tweeds.

4. KINROSS is enclosed between the counties of Fife and Perth, and is, on the whole, well cultivated. It includes Loch Leven-the largest lake within the lowland region.

The county town, KINBOSS (2), is on the west shore of the lake. The castle of Loch Leven, on an island in the lake, was the temporary prison of Mary, Queen of Scots, and the scene of her romantic escape in 1568, immediately prior to the battle of Langside.

5. FIFESHIRE, a Lowland county, forms a peninsula, lying between the Firths of Forth and Tay. Its interior is hilly and pastoral, but a broad and fertile belt of country stretches along the coast.1 on which are numerous seaport and fishing towns.

CUPAR (5) is the county town. Among the other towns are Dunfermline, Burntisland, Kirkcaldy, St. Andrews, and Falkland. Dunfermline is a great seat of the linen manufacture, and has an ancient abbey church, within which are the remains of Robert Bruce. St. Andrews is the seat of the oldest of the Scottish universities.

6. FORFARSHIRE, or Angus, is principally within the Lowland region, and is (with Fifeshire) the chief seat of the linen and jute manufacture, which is extensively pursued in several of its towns.

FORFAR (13), the county town, lies in the heart of the great plain of Strathmore. Dundee (153), on the Firth of Tay, is of larger size, and is one of the most considerable of the Scottish seaports. Montrose, also a thriving seat of trade, is on the coast of the North Sea. Midway between Montrose and Dundee is Arbroath (or Aberbrothock), the nearest port to the celebrated Bell Rock, or Inchcape. Brechin and Coupar-Angus (so called to distinguish it from the county town of Fifeshire) are in this county.

7. KINCARDINE, or the Mearns, extends from Forfar to the banks of the Dee, and includes the most eastward portion of the Grampians. But the coast division of the county is Lowland.

STONEHAVEN (4), the chief town, is on the shore of the North Sea, and is an important herring-fishing station, as also are Bervie, Findon, and other fishing ports. From Findon, or Finnan, the name "Finnan haddocks" is derived.

III. THREE SOUTH-HIGHLAND COUNTIES.²

1. BUTESHIRE, the most southward of the Highland counties, consists of the islands of Bute and Arran, in the Firth of Clyde.

² The areas and population of the Three South-Highland Counties are as follows:--(1.) Butk 271 sq. m., pop. 13,468. (2) Argyle, 3213 sq. m., pop. 75,645. (3) Perth, 2,557 sq. m., pop. 136,128.

Arran is hilly, but Bute is level and fertile. The latter has the most salubrious climate in Scotland.

The county town, **BOTHESAY** (9), is on Bute, which is moderately elevated. The channel which divides Bute from the mainland is called the Kyles of Bute. Arran has a more rugged surface, and furnishes some granite ; its chief town is Brodick, a small place on the east coast.

2. **ARGYLE** embraces a rugged Highland tract on the Scotch mainland, and includes many of the adjacent islands-amongst them Mull, Jura, and Islay; with Coll, Tiree, Colonsay, and many of smaller size. Staffa and Iona, off the west coast of Mull, are of the number.

The county town is INVERARY, near the head of Loch Fyne. Campbeltown (5), on the peninsula of Cantire, is of larger size. Oban (5) is a rising place on the western coast, near the entrance to Loch Linnhe. Glencoe, the scene of the infamous massacre of the Macdonalds in 1692, is a wild pastoral valley, which adjoins the south shores of Loch Leven, one of the estuaries of the western coast.

3. PERTHSHIRE is Lowland in the east and centre; but its northern and western divisions include an extensive and rugged portion of the Highlands. It comprehends, in the south-west, the romantic district of the Trossachs, within which are embraced the wooded heights of Ben A'an and Ben Venue, with the winding shores of Loch Katrine, Loch Achray, and Loch Vennachar.

The city of PERTH (30) lies on the right bank of the Tay, immediately above the estuary which the river forms in its lower course. Near Perth (upon the opposite bank of the river) is *Scone*, the ancient coronation-place of the kings of Scotland. *Tippermuir*, the scene of one of the victories gained by Montrose (in 1644) during his brilliant but evanescent career of success, is a short distance to the south-west of Perth. The other towns of Perthshire-all of small size-are Dunblane, Doune, Callander, Dunkeld, and Crieff. Two miles to the eastward of Dunblane is Sheriffmuir, the scene of an indecisive engagement between the royalist and the rebel forces in 1715. The Pass of Killiecrankie, on the romantic banks of the Garry, which joins the Tummel' below the defile, is in the northern part of Perthshire. It was here that the leader of the Highland clans, Viscount Dundee, fell in the moment of victory over the forces of King William in 1689.

IV. NINE NORTH-HIGHLAND COUNTIES. *

1. ABERDEENSHIRE is Lowland towards the coast; but its interior belongs to the Highlands. Large numbers of cattle are reared in this county for the English market.

- Banff, 688 sq. m., pop. 64,167.
 Eligin, 475 sq. m., pop. 64,167.
 Kaira, 178 sq. m., pop. 16,018.
 Inverness, 4,088 sq. m., pop. 88,382.
 Ross & Cromarty, 139 sq. m., pop. 77,781.
 Botherland, 307 sq. m., pop. 71,0140.
 Othernes, 737 sq. m., pop. 28,711.

^{1.} There are two locks bearing this name-one in Kinross (the scene of Queen Mary's confine-ments and escape); the other, that referred to above, on the border-line between the counties of Argyle and Invernes. This latter is an arm

The city of ABERDERN (113), its capital, situated between the mouths of the rivers Dee and Don, is one of the most commercial places in Scotland, and is distinguished for its university. At the Bridge of Dee, two miles above Aberdeen, Montrose defeated the Covenanters in 1644. **Peterhead**, a flourishing port, is on the coast to the northward, and is the headquarters of the Greenland whale-fishery. **Fraserburgh**, another seaport, is still further north. **Inverury**, at the junction of the little river Ury with the Don, is a small inland town. Balmoral Castle, the Highland reaidence of our gracious Queen, is in this county, within the beautiful valley of the upper Dee, near its southern bank.

2. **BANFFSHIRE** is chiefly Lowland, but penetrates the Highland region in its southerly division. The noted distilleries of Glenlivet are in this county.

Its chief town, BANFF (7), is near the mouth of the river Deveron. Portsoy and Cullen are small towns on the coast.

3. **ELGIN**, or Moray, is Lowland in the north, but Highland in its southwardly portion. Its climate is remarkably mild.

The town of **ELGIN** (8), its capital, is a few miles distant from the coast, on the little river Lossie. Forres is further to the west, near the river Findhorn.

4. NAIRNSHIRE, a small county, is partly Lowland, but becomes hilly in the south. The level districts are along the coast, and are generally fertile.

The town of NAIRN (4) is on a small river of that name, at its entrance into the Moray Firth. *Auldearn*, a village lying a few miles south of Nairn, was the scene of one of Montrose's victories in 1645.

5. **INVERNESS** is entirely a Highland county. Ben Nevis, the highest mountain in Britain, is within its limits, which include a succession of bleak moorlands, high mountains, and narrow glens. The line of the Caledonian Canal crosses the county from north-east to south-west, passing through the narrow valley of Glenmore. The large island of Skye belongs to this county, as also do Harris, North and South Uist, and Benbecula, among those of the Hebrides lying further to the westward.

The town of INVERNESS (19), regarded as the capital of the Highlands, stands at the entrance of the river Ness into Loch Beauly (as the upper extremity of the Moray Firth is called). A few miles east is *Culloden Moor*, the scene of Prince Charles Edward's final defeat in 1746. Near **Fort William**, at the south-western extremity of the Caledonian Canal, and at the outlet of the river Lochie into Loch Eil, is *Invertochy*, where Montrose gained, in 1645, the most brilliant of his victories. **Fortree** is a small place on the east coast of Skye.

6. **BOSS** and **OROMARTY** (now united into one shire) comprehends a rugged Highland tract, which stretches across the country from the Moray Firth to the Atlantic coast. It includes Lewis, the largest of the Hebrides.

The county town is TAIN (2), on Dornoch Firth. Dingwall, further south, is a royal burgh and railway junction of some importance at the head of Cromarty Firth. Stornoway is a fishing station on the island of Lewis.

The town of Cromarty (1) is situated at the entrance of the magnificent estuary called Cromarty Firth-one of the finest of natural harbours. Hugh Miller, the geologist, was born in this town.

. The formerly separate shire of Cromarty consisted of several small and detached portions of country, enclosed by Ross and the adjacent county of Sutherland.

7. SUTHERLAND is entirely Highland, and is the most thinly-populated county in Scotland. Immense numbers of sheep are reared in this county.

DORNOCH, the county town, is on the east coast, upon the northern side of the firth to which its name is given.

8. CAITHNESS includes the north-eastern extremity of the Scotch mainland. This county is level and generally sterile.

Its chief town, WICK (5), is a flourishing seaport—the chief seat of the herring fishery. Thurso is on the north coast of the island. Near Duncansbay Head is the site of the famous John o' Groat's House, the most northerly dwelling on the mainland of Scotland. Hence the popular saying, "From Land's End to John o' Groat's."

9. The county of ORKNEY and SHETLAND consists of the groups of islands so called. Both groups are nearly, if not entirely, destitute of trees, and are bleak and barren, with the exception of a few fertile tracts in the Orkneys.

KIRKWALL (3), situated on the largest of the Orkneys (called Pomona, or Mainland), is the county town. Lerwick (4), the principal town in the Shetlands, is on the east coast of Mainland, as the principal island of that group is named.

QUESTIONS ON SCOTLAND.

1. How is Scotland bounded?

2. Give in round numbers its length, breadth, and area.

and area. 3. Describe the coasts of Scotland. 4. Point out upon the map the following estuaries:-the Firth of Forth, Firth of Tay, Moray Firth, Loch Linnhe, Loch Fyne, the Firth of Olyde, and Gienlace Bay. bad Lummerste the principal islands of Scot-

6. What great natural division has Scotland with reference to the features of its surface?

with reference to the features of its surface? 7. In what parts of Scotland are the follow-ing:-Strathmore, Glemmore, the Grampian Mountains, the Ochil Hills, and the Pentland Hills? 8. Name the highest mountains in Scotland, with their elevation in fest. 9. Describe briefly the principal rivers and lakes of Scotland. 10. In what respect does the climate of Scot-land differ from that of England?

What minerals occur in Scotland, and in. what parts of the country?
 What are the limits of the coal and iron.

12. What are the limits of the coal and from district of Scotland? 13. Is Scotland? England? What portions of the country are-most numerously peopled? 14. What are the principal industrial pur-mits of the Scotch people? 15. What constitutes the chief industrial pur-mit of the Highland population? 16. In what parts of Scotland are the cotton-and linen manufactures most extensively carried on?

on l

20.7 What are the means of communication? 17. What are the means of communication? 18. Into how many counties is Scotland divided? Name the largest and the smallest of the number. 19. Are the counties of Edinburgh, Dumfries, Lanark, Argyle, and Inverness within the Highlanda or the Lowlands? 20. Name some of the counties which are partly. The block out part by Lawland.

Highland and partly Lowland.

21. Which two of the counties are entirely in-sular? 32. What three counties are called also by the names of West, Mid, and East Lothian? 38. Where are the following piace: -Edin-burgh, Giagow, Dumfries, Kilmarnock, Dundes, Aberdeen, and Invernes? 34. In what counties are the following towns respectively situated --Dundar, Kelso, Paisley, Faltrick, Montrose, St. Andrews, Dunfermline, and Invernav?

Failtric, Montrose, St. Andrews, Dunierminne, and Inversary? 36. Of what branches of manufacturing indus-try are Glasgow and Pailely the seat? 38. What manufacture is carried on chiefly at Dunfermine, Dundes, and other places on the est side of Scotland?

27. In what counties are the battlefields of Bannockburn, Pinkie, Prestonpans, and Culloden?

28. Point out the site of the following battle-fields:-Langside, Kilsyth, Sheriffmuir, and In-verlochy.

windoidy.
By the part of Scotland is the district of the Trossachs? By what is it distinguished?
By the state and the state of the state of the trossachs?
By the state output of the shands of Staffa and tona belong? Point to their locality on the map, and say for what they are celebrated?
Name the chief towns of each of the following contributions: —Bute, Kincardine, Rozburgh, Argyle, Sutherland, and Orkney and Sheiland.

III. IRELAND.

Ireland,¹ the third largest island of Europe, lies to the west of Great Britain.

The shores of Ireland and Great Britain make the nearest approach to each other between Fair Head and the Mull of Cantire, where the channel is only 18 miles wide, and are furthest apart along the 54th parallel, between Dundalk Bay and Morecambe Bay, a distance of about 140 miles. St. David's Head, the most westerly point of Wales, is about 50 miles distant from Carnsore Point on the opposite Irish coast.

BOUNDARIES.—On three sides—the north, west, and south-Ireland is bounded by the Atlantic Ocean; on the east, by the North Channel, the Irish Sea, and St. George's Channel.

Ireland is divided from England by the Irish Sea, from Wales by St. George's Channel, and from Scotland by the North Channel.

EXTENT.-The superficial extent of Ireland is 32,530 square miles, or rather more than one-half that of England and Wales.

The greatest length (from Malin Head to Mizen Head) is 290 miles. The mean length (from Malin Head to Hook Head) is about 220 miles.

The greatest breadth (from Howth Head to Slyne Head) is 175 miles.

The least breadth (between Donegal and Belfast) is 90 miles.

COASTS.—The western and south-western coasts of Ireland are more indented than the eastern side of the island. The entire length of coast line, including the larger inlets, is about 2,000 miles. or 1 mile of coast to every 15 square miles of area.

The eastern coasts of Ireland are, on the whole, flat and regular, and the approach from Great Britain is obstructed by numerous sand-banks and rocks. The northern, western, and southern shores are, on the contrary, high, rocky, and in parts very irregular, especially in the south-west. The principal features to be noted are :-

1. Capes.—On the north, Fair Head (or Benmore), Bengore Head.²

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^{1.} Ireland (Gaolio), western isle. The native name is Kris. The Romans called it Hibernia. To the Phomicians it was known as ferme. The ancients often called it the "Emeraid Isle," on Scoount of its verdure.

IRELAND.

Malin Head, and Horn Head ; on the west, Rossan Point, Achill¹ Head, Slyne Head, Loop Head, Dunmore' Head; on the south, Mizen Head, Cape Clear, and Carnsore Point; on the east, Wicklow Head and Howth Head.

Malin Head is the most northerly point of Ireland; Dunmore Head the most westerly; and Mizen Head the most southerly. Cape Clear is the extreme point of a small island which lies off the south-west coast.

2. Inlets.—The principal inlets are :- On the east, Dublin Bay, Dundalk Bay, Carlingford Lough, * Dundrum Bay, Strangford Lough, and Belfast Lough ; on the north, Lough Foyle and Lough Swilly ; on the west, Donegal Bay, Sligo Bay, Clew Bay, Galway Bay, the estuary of the Shannon, Dingle Bay, Kenmare River, and Bantry Bay; on the south, Cork Harbour and Waterford Harbour.

Many of the numerous inlets on the southern and western shores of Ireland form splendid harbours. Those of Bantry Bay and Cork could contain the entire British navy, and no less than twelve others could float the largest men-of-war. On the east coast, the only good harbour is Strangford Lough. Dublin Bay is partially protected by two granite sea-walls.

3. Islands.-None of any considerable magnitude or importance. The principal are :-

Rathlin and Tory, on the north ; Clear and Spike, 4 on the south ; Dalkey, Ireland's Eye, and Lambay, on the east ; North Aran, Achill, Clare, Aran, and Valentia, on the west.

MOUNTAINS.—Ireland is generally level in the interior, but has mountain-tracts adjoining various portions of its coast. The highest mountains are in the south-west, within the county of Kerry, but there are nowhere any continuous chains. The following are the principal mountain ranges :---

1. The Mourne Mountains, between Dundrum and Dundalk Bays, attain in Slieve^e Donard a height of 2,796 feet above the sea.

2. The Wicklow Hills, near the east coast, are famed for their scenery. Lugnaquilla attains an elevation of 2,039 feet above the sea.

3. The Mountains of Donegal culminate in Mount Errigal, 2,466 feet in height.

4. The Kerry Mountains, in the south-west, form several parallel ranges, separated by Dingle Bay and other inlets. The highest point is Carrontuohill, 3,414 feet, in Macgillicuddy Reeks.

5. The Mountains of Connaught include the Nephin Beg (2,646 feet) and the Mountains of Connemara (2,688 feet).

Other less important ranges are the Slieve Bloom, 1,733 feet; Silvermine. 2,278; Galty, 3,015; and the Knockmeildown Mountains, 2,609.

PLAINS.—A nearly level plain extends across the middle part of the island, from Dublin Bay on the east to Galway Bay on the west. In some parts of this plain, and also in the various mountain regions, there are extensive bogs." These bogs furnish abundance of

^{1.} Achill, eagle. 2. Deamnore, Dun, a fort, and mor, great. 3. The term lows, in Ireland, is equivalent to lock in Scotland. It is given both to inland lakes and to the nearly land-enclosed inlets along the coast.

^{4.} Spike Island is in Cork Harbour, and is fortified.

^{5.} Valentis: on this island is an important telegraph station. 6. Blieve, Jirah, Sikobh, a mountain. 7. Of the bogs of Ireland, the black bog is most valmable for fuel, but it is not so capable of being reclaimed as the rot and brown bogs.

peat (used as fuel), and are capable, when drained, of being brought under cultivation. The Bog of Allen, in Leinster, is the largest.

The total extent of bog-land is about 5,000 square miles, or nearly oneseventh of the entire area of the island.

RIVERS.—Ireland abounds in inland waters. The principal rivers are :—

1. On the north, the Bann (100 miles long), draining Lough Neagh, and the Foyle, flowing into Lough Foyle.

2. On the east, the Lagan (42 miles), flowing into Belfast Lough; the Boyne¹ (80 miles), which is navigable to Navan; the Liffey (75 miles), which has the metropolis of Ireland on its banks; the Slaney (70 miles), flowing into Wexford Haven.

3. On the south, the **Barrow** (114 miles long), which rises in the Slieve Bloom Mountains, and is navigable to Athy, 60 miles from the sea; the **Suir** and the **Nore**, tributaries of the Barrow; the **Blackwater** (90 miles), which rises in the Kerry Mountains and falls into Youghal Harbour; and the **Lee** (60 miles), whose estuary forms the splendid harbour of Cork.

4. On the west, the **Shannon** (224 miles), the longest river in Ireland, which flows from a small pond in Cavan, through Loughs Allen, Ree, and Derg, into the Atlantic, and is navigable to Lough Allen, 213 miles from the sea.

LAKES.—The largest lake in Ireland is Lough Neagh (150 square miles), in the province of Ulster, which is also larger than any other lake in the British Islands—being more than three times the size of Loch Lomond in Scotland, and fifteen times larger than Windermere in England. The other principal lakes are Lough Erne, Lough Allen, Lough Ree, Lough Derg, Lough Mask, Lough Corrib, and the Lakes of Killarney.

Lough Allen, Lough Ree, and Lough Derg are within the course of the river Shannon. The Lakes of Killarney (total area, 10 square miles), in Kerry, are celebrated for their beautiful scenery. The highest mountains in Ireland rise immediately above their western shore.

CLIMATE and VEGETATION.—The climate of Ireland is moister than that of England. This preserves a more constant verdure to the fields, and a superior freshness and brightness of colour to its general vegetation. The winters are nearly always mild, and the prevalent winds, which are from the west, are laden with the warm and moist vapours derived from the waters of the Atlantic. The vegetation native to the coasts of Kerry (the south-westernmost. county) is especially distinguished for its rich luxuriance.

Ireland is at all times much more humid than England, and more rain falls. on its western and southern than on its eastern coasts. Thus the average annual *rainfall* at Cork is 40 inches, but at Dublin only 31 inches.

PRODUCTIONS.—In respect of mineral produce, Ireland is inferior to England and Scotland in one essential particular—*coal*. This affects injuriously its manufacturing industry. The coalfields of Ireland—diffused at wide distances apart, through the north-east,

^{1.} The "Battle of the Boyne" was fought on the 1st of July, 1690.

midland, and south-western counties—are of limited extent compared to those of Great Britain, and their produce small in amount. Peat is the fuel most generally consumed, but coal is imported from the English and Scotch seaports.

Ireland has ores of copper, lead, iron, and other mineral produce, and possesses a rich variety of marbles and building-stones.

INHABITANTS.—Ireland has rather more inhabitants than Scotland, but very much fewer than England. It contained, in 1891, a population of nearly $4\frac{3}{4}$ millions,' or fewer by $1\frac{1}{4}$ millions than had belonged to it eighty years earlier, and little more than one-half of its population in 1841. But vast numbers of the Irish people emigrated to other lands during the intervening period; and famine, with its attendant sickness and suffering, contributed to thin the population.

Race and Language.—The great majority of the Irish population belong to the Celtic race—the same that peoples the Highlands of Scotland and the mountain-region of Wales. It is chiefly in the province of Ulster (the northeast part of the island) that the Anglo-Saxon race is found settled on Irish soil. The people of Ulster are the descendants of immigrants from the Scotch Lowlands, and preserve the social habits and industry of Scotland. People of English descent are numerous in the neighbourhood of Dublin, and are also scattered over every portion of the island. The native language of Ireland, called *Erse*, a Celtic dialect, is rapidly becoming superseded by the English tongue.

INDUSTRIAL PURSUITS.—As regards industry, Ireland is chiefly an agricultural country, and a very large portion of the land is in pasture. Cattle and pigs, with various farm produce, constitute (over by far the greater part of the island) its chief industrial wealth. Manufactures flourish principally in Ulster, where the linen manufacture is pursued on a scale of great extent. Woollen and cotton goods are also made, but in smaller quantities. A great part of the commerce of Ireland consists in the *export* of its agricultural produce to the English markets, and in the *import* of coal, with various articles of British and foreign produce.

The principal **ports** are Dublin, Belfast, Cork, Waterford, Limerick, Galway, and Londonderry. The greater part of the trade with Great Britain is carried on between these ports and Glasgow, Liverpool, and Bristol.

Internal Communication is facilitated by excellent turnpike roads, over 2,700 miles of railway connecting Dublin with all the large towns, several canals and navigable rivers, and efficient postal and telegraphic services.

The main lines of railway are :---

(1.) The Great Southern and Western, from Dublin to Cork, Waterford, and Limerick.

(2.) The Midland and Great Western, from Dublin to Galway.

(3.) The Great Northern, from Dublin to Belfast.

(4.) The Irish and North Western, from Dundalk to Londonderry.

(5.) The Belfast and Northern Counties, from Belfast to Londonderry.

(6.) The Dublin and Belfast; and (7) the Dublin, Wicklow and Wexford.

^{1.} An average of only 145 per square mile, or | Wales. In 1841, the population numbered less than one-third of that of England and 8,175,124.

The principal canals are :--

(1.) The **Boyal Canal** connecting Dublin and the Shannon ; constructed (2.) The Grand Canal by Government at a cost of £3,000,000.

COUNTIES and TOWNS.—Ireland is divided into four provinces, which are subdivided into thirty-two counties. The provinces are, *Leinster* in the east, *Ulster* in the north, *Connaught* in the west, and *Munster* in the south.

1. Leinster contains twelve counties :- Dublin, Wicklow, Wexford, Kilkenny, Carlow, Kildare, Queen's County, King's County, Westmeath, Longford, Meath, and Louth.

2. Ulster contains nine counties :-Armagh, Down, Antrim, Londonderry, Donegal, Tyrone, Fermanagh, Monaghan, and Cavan.

3. Connaught includes five counties :- Leitrim, Roscommon, Sligo, Mayo, and Galway.

4. Munster contains six counties :--Clare, Limerick, Tipperary, Waterford, Cork, and Kerry.

1. **LEINSTER.**—The counties and principal towns in this province are as follows, the name of the county town being in each case distinguished by italic letters :—

County.	Area	Population. (1891).	Towns.
DUBLIN WICKLOW WEXFORD KILKENNY CARLOW KILDARE QUEEN'S COUNTY KING'S COUNTY WESTMBATH LONGFORD MEATH	Sq. m. 354 781 901 796 346 654 664 772 708 421 906	429,000 61,000 111,000 87,000 40,000 70,000 64,000 65,000 65,000 65,000 52,000	Dublin, Kingstown. Wicklow, Arklow, Bray. Wesford, New Ross. Kilkenny, Callan. Carlow, Tullow. Athy, Naas, Maynooth. Maryborough, Mountmellick. Tullamore, Parsonstown. Mullingar, Athlone. Longford, Edgeworthstown.
LOUTH .	315	76,000 70,000	Trim, Navan, Kells. Dundalk, Drogheda.

DUBLIN (353), the capital of Ireland, stands at the mouth of the river Liffey. It is less populous than either Manchester, Liverpool, or Glasgow, but it is a great seat of trade, and has numerous fine public buildings. Dublin has the rank of an archiepiscopal city, and possesses two cathedrals. It is also the seat of several universities. Kingstown (17), on the south side of Dublin Bay, has a fine artificial harbour, and is the mail-packet station between Dublin and England, and for steamers plying to Holyhead and Liverpool. A short distance to the south of Dublin begins the romantic district of the Wicklow Mountains.

Kilkenny (11), on the river Nore (an affluent of the Barrow), is second among the towns of Leinster in point of population, and is the largest inland town in the island. Wexford (12), at the outlet of the river Slaney into Wexford Haven, is a port of considerable trade. Drogheda (12), and Dundalk (13), to the northward of Dublin, are also flourishing commercial ports. Drogheda stands on the river Boyne, near its mouth. The Battle of the Boyne, in 1690, between the armies of William III. and James II., was fought on the banks of the river a short distance above the town. Athlone, on the Shannon, below its issue from Lough Ree, is a thriving inland town, partly in Leinster and partly in Connaught.

2. ULSTER.—The counties and principal towns in Ulster are named in the following table :—

County.	Area.	Population.	Towns.
ARMAGH DOWN . ANTRIM LONDONDERRY DONEGAL TYRONE FERMANAGH . MONAGHAN . CAVAN	^{Sq. m.} 513 957 1,190 816 1,870 1,260 714 500 746	143,000 266,000 427,000 151,000 185,000 171,000 74,000 86,000 111,000	Armagh, Portadown, Lurgan. Downpatrick, Newry, Donaghadee. Belfast, Lisburn, Carrickfergus. Londonderry, Coleraine. Lifford, Ballyshannon. Omagh, Strabane, Dungannon. Enniskillen, Newtown Butler. Monaghan, Clones. Cavan, Belturbet, Cootehill.

BELFAST (273) is the largest city of Ulster, and the chief seat of the linen manufacture of Ireland. It has also manufactures of cotton, with potteries, glassworks, &c., and a larger amount of foreign trade than any other city in the island. Armagh has a great share in the linen manufacture, and is an archiepiscopal see—the ecclesiastical metropolis of Ireland. Londonderry (33), on the river Foyle, has considerable trade, and is famous in history for the gallant defence made by its Protestant inhabitants against the besieging army of James II. in 1689. Coleraine (6), in the same county, near the mouth of the Bann, is a flourishing port.

The *Giant's Causeway*, on the north coast of Antrim, is one of the chief natural wonders of the kingdom ; it is a vast assemblage of columns of basaltic rock, which line a part of the shore, and advance, by successive rows, into the sea.

3. CONNAUGHT.—The counties and chief towns of Connaught are as follow :—

County.	Area.	Population.	Towns.
LEITRIM ROSCOMMON . SLIGO MAYO GALWAY	^{8q. m.} 613 949 721 2,126 2,452	78,000 114,000 98,000 218,000 214,000	Carrick-on-Shannon, Leitrim Roscommon, Boyle. Sligo, Ballymote. Castlebar, Westport. Galvoay, Tuam, Loughrea.

GALWAY (14), the county town, is a seaport and railway terminus, near the head of Galway Bay. At one time it was expected that Galway, with its fine harbour and floating dock, would become important as a mail packet station for America. Some distance to the westward begins the romantic tract of country known as *Connemara*, a region of alternate hills and valleys, with enclosed lakes and mountain streams. Aughrim, a village in the eastern part of the county (a few miles distant from the right bank of the Suck), witnessed a decisive victory gained by the army of William III. over the troops of James II. in 1691. Silgo (10), a port at the head of Sligo Bay, has considerable trade.

County.	Area.	Population.	Towns.
CLARE LIMERICK TIPPERABY WATERPORD CORK KERRY	8q. m. 1,294 1,064 1,659 721 2,890 1,850	123,000 158,000 122,000 98,000 436,000 178,000	Ennis, Kilrush, Killaloe. Limerick, Rathkeale, Newcastle. Clonmel, Carrick, Cashel, Tipperary. Waterford, Dungarvan, Lismore. Cork, Youghal, Bandon, Kinsale. Tralee, Killarney, Listowel.

4. MUNSTER includes the following counties and towns :--

Limerick (37) is second in size among the cities of Munster, and is rich in historic memories. It was in former days the stronghold of the Roman Catholic cause, and sustained two memorable sieges in behalf of King James II. in 1690-91. Limerick stands on either bank of the Shannon, a short way above the estuary. Clonmel (10), on the Suir, is an inland town of some importance. Waterford (22), also on the Suir, a short way above its junction with the Barrow, shares largely in the export trade of the island, and has extensive commercial relations with Bristol.

CORK (75) is the third city in Ireland in point of population, and is the largest among the cities of Munster. It stands on the Lee, 10 miles above the entrance of that river into Cork Harbour. Cork has great foreign trade. Queenstown (at which the larger class of vessels belonging to Cork load and discharge their cargoes) is on an island in Cork Harbour. Youghal (6) and Kinsale (4), one to the east, the other westward of Cork, are thriving seaports, at the mouths, respectively, of the rivers Blackwater and Bandon.

The varied character of the south-western shores of Ireland deserves especial notice. Of its many inlets the finest is Dingle Bay, which penetrates inland for upwards of thirty miles. Valentia Island lies at its entrance, on the southern side. The beautiful Lakes of Killarney, in this part of Irelaud, are three in number-an Upper, Middle, and Lower Lake. The town of Killarney (6) is close beside the lower lake.

QUESTIONS ON IRELAND.

1. By what is Ireland divided from Great Britain, and how is it bounded? 2. Describe briefly the coasts, and name the principal capes and inlets of Ireland. 8. Distinguish between the portions of Ireland that are mountaineus and those which possess

that are mountainous and know which powers a level surface. 4. Name the highest mountains of Ireland. 5. Enumerate the chief rivers of Ireland. 6. Name the principal lakes of Ireland. Which is the larger that Path proportion of the latest 7. Which three of the lakes belong to the course which three of the lakes belong to the course

 Which three of the lakes belong to the course of the Shannon?
 By what is the climate of Ireland distinguished from that of England?
 What minoral produce has Ireland? In what particular, in this regard, is it inferior to Grout Britain? 10. Is Ireland more or less populous than England and Scotlaad? 11. To what race do the majority of the Irish people belong?

12 In what respect do the people of Ulster differ from the population of the island in general?

summit? 14 In what does the industrial produce of Treand chiefly consist? 14 In what part of the island does manufac-turing industry flourish most, and what are the means of internal communication? 15 Into what number of counties, and into how many previnces, is Treiand divided? Name

the provinces.

16. How many counties are in Leinster? How many in Ulster, Connaught, and Munster respectively?

specifiely? 17. Name the counties within (1) Leinster; (2) Ulister; (3) Connaught; and (4) Munster. 18. In what counties are Dublin, Athy, Mary-borough, Tuliamore, and Dandalk respectively? 19. On what rivers are Dublin, Kilkenny, Westford, Drogheda, and Athlone? 30. What reconstruct distinguishes the

Wextfort, Drogneum, and Astmoner 20. What noteworthy event distinguishes the neighbourhood of Drogheda? 21. What place ranks first, in point of size, among the cities of Ulster, and by what kind of industry is it distinguished? 22. What city ranks as the ecclesiastical metro-polis of reland, and in whis county is it?

23, On what rivers are Londonderry and Coleraine situated?

24. What historical event distinguishes Londonderry? 25. Where is the Giant's Causeway, and of what does it consist?

26. Describe briefly the largest city of Connaught.

and gen.
Z. In what county is the village of Aughrim, and for what is it noteworthy?
28. What place is largest, and what second in size, among the citles of Munster?

30. Upon what rivers are Cork, Kinsale. Limerick, Waterford, and Cionnel? 30. For what is Limerick historically distin-guished?

31. In what county are the Lakes of Killarney ?

THE UNITED KINGDOM.

Though comparatively small in *area*, and surpassed by many other countries in point of *population*, the United Kingdom of Great Britain and Ireland is the greatest commercial and manufacturing country in the world.

The industrial and commercial supremacy of the United Kingdom is due to its splendid geographical position and almost unparalleled development of coast-line, a favourable climate and an abundant supply of coal, the most essential of all minerals, and iron, the most useful of all metals, the energy and enterprise of the people, ample capital and efficient labour, unrivalled facilities for carrying on industrial operations on a vast scale, colonies and dependencies in all parts of the globe, and a mercantile marine larger than the merchant navies of all other countries taken together.

INDUSTRIES.—Agriculture and stock-raising are important industries, and the fisheries are a great source of wealth, but mining, especially for coal and iron, manufacturing and commerce, occupy and support most of the people of the United Kingdom.

Agriculture.-England is the most highly cultivated country in the world, but most of the land in Scotland, Ireland, and Wales is in pasture.

Fishing is an important industry, especially along the eastern coasts of Scotland and England. Upwards of 30,000 boats and 125,000 men are employed in the British sea-fisheries, and the value of the fish landed every year is about 12 or 13 millions sterling.

Mining is one of the most important of British industries. Great Britain contains vast stores of mineral wealth—in fact, no other country in the world possesses in such variety and abundance the material elements of prosperity.

The coalfields of England and Wales, and Southern Seotland, are by far the largest and richest in Europe, and the most productive in the world. The annual production of coal in the United Kingdom, for manufacturing purposes, household use, and for export, amounts to the enormous quantity of nearly 180 million tons, or more than one-half the entire output of all other countries taken together. Coal-mining and the coal trade employ directly about six hundred thousand men, and the export trade in coal alone employs a very large amount of shipping.

Iron-ore, by far the most valuable of all metallic ores, occurs abundantly within and near the coal areas of England and Wales and Southern Scotland, and there are also rich deposits of this ore in Ireland. The annual production of iron-ore in the United Kingdom is about 144 million tons, from which nearly 54 million tons of metal are produced.

MANUFACTURES.—The United Kingdom is the chief manufacturing country in the world, and in England and Wales, and Lowland Scotland, more people are engaged in manufacturing pursuits than in any other branch of industry.

The most important manufacturing industries of the United Kingdom are the great textile manufactures and metal industries, with the chemical industries, and the leather manufacture. The making of earthenware, glass, paper, watches and clocks, &c., are all important industries, but none of them are upon a scale of such magnitude as the textile fabrics and metal wares, chemical and leather goods, which form the great staples of British manufacturing industry.

TRADE and **COMMERCE**.—In trade and commerce, as well as in mining and manufactures, the United Kingdom surpasses all other countries, its enormous internal trade, merging into a gigantic foreign trade, equalling in value one-fifth of the entire trade of the world.

The internal trade of the United Kingdom is very large, and the transport of goods and produce from place to place is quickly and easily effected by means of splendidly constructed railways, excellent roads, numerous canals, and navigable rivers.

The foreign commerce of the United Kingdom is by far the most gigantic in the world, the total Annual Trade with foreign countries and British Possessions now reaching the enormous amount of 748 millions sterling, or one-fifth of the value of the entire commerce of the world.

Of the foreign trade of the United Kingdom over 90 per cent, falls to the share of *England*, 8 per cent. to *Scotland*, and less than 2 per cent. to *Ireland*.

Our foreign trade is carried on chiefly with the United States, India, France, Australasia, Germany, Holland, Russia, Belgium, British North America, South Africa, Spain, the Argentine Republic, and China. Our annual trade with these countries ranges between 11 millions sterling with China and 125 millions with the United States.

Imports and Exports.—In 1890, the imports and exports were larger than ever they had been before, the imports amounting to 421 millions sterling, or over £11 per head of the population, and the exports to 327 millions sterling, or £8, 108. for every inhabitant, the total trade thus reaching the enormous sum of 748 millions sterling, or nearly £20 per head of the population.

British imports consist chiefly of articles of food and raw materials for our manufactures, while British exports are principally manufactured goods, coal, metals, and chemicals.

The chief markets for British manufactures and other products are India, Australasia, Canada, and South Africa, within the empire; and the United States, Germany, France, the Argentine Republic, Holland, Italy, Belgium, Brasil, Turkey, and China, among foreign countries.

More than half the foreign trade of the United Kingdom is carried on through the four great ports of London, Liverpool, Cardiff, and Newcastle.

The next largest ports in order of tonnage are Hull, Glasgow, Newport, North and South Shields, Sunderland, Southampton, Middlesborough, Swansea, Dover, Leith, Grimsby, and Harwich, each of which have a 'movement' of over a million tons a year. Less than a million tons entered and cleared at "rtlepool, Bristol, Dublin, and Belfast. **CONSTITUTION** and **GOVERNMENT**.—The United Kingdom of Great Britain and Ireland constitutes, in form of government, a Hereditary and Limited Monarchy.

The executive power is nominally in the hands of the Sovereign; the legislative power is divided between the Sovereign, the House of Peers, and the House of Commons—the last being a Representative Assembly, elected by qualified classes of the people at large. The House of Commons alone has the right to regulate the taxes and expenditure of the kingdom, and the Ministers of the Crown are responsible to it for their public proceedings. The people of the British Islands thus enjoy the blessings of a free Constitution. The expression of opinion is free to all classes.

The annual **Revenue**, which is chiefly derived from the *Customs*, *Bxcise*, *Stamps* and *Taxes*, and the *Post Office* and *Telegraphs*, and **Expenditure**, mainly on account of the *Public Debt*, the *Army and Navy*, and the *Civil Services*, each amounts to about 90 millions sterling; while the **National Debt** amounts to 690 millions.

The British **Army** is small compared with the huge armies of continental powers, but the **Navy** is the largest and most powerful in the world.

BELIGION and **EDUCATION**.—There is perfect religious equality and absolute freedom of worship in our country. Elementary education is compulsory in both Great Britain and Ireland, and was made free in Scotland in 1889, and in England and Wales in 1891. Higher education is amply provided for by public and private schools, colleges, and universities.

The Established Church of England is *Protestant Episcopal*, and is under the government of 2 archbishops and 32 bishops. The Established Church of Scotland is Presbyterian in form, and is under the supreme control of a *General Assembly*. There is no State Church in Ireland, but the majority of the people belong to the *Roman Catholic Church*.

As regards education, Scotland is far in advance of both England and Ireland. Elementary Education is *compulsory* in each country, and was made *free* in Scotland in 1889, and in England and Wales in 1891. The **total expenditure on elementary education** in the British Isles is no less than **10 millions** a year.

Higher Education is provided for by the Universities of Oxford, Cambridge, Durham, Victoria, and London (an examining body only) in England; Edunburgh, Glasgow, St. Andrews, and Aberdeen in Scotland; and Dublin in Ireland. Besides these Universities, there are University Colleges at London, Liverpool, Manchester, Leeds, Birmingham, Bristol, Newcastle, Nottingham. and Sheffield in England; at Aberystvith, Bangor, and Cardiff in Wales; and Dundee in Scotland. In Ireland, higher education is given in the Queen's Colleges at Belfast, Cork, and Galway.

The Fublic and Grammar Schools, as well as the Private Schools and Colleges of England and Wales, are not under Government control; in Scotland a large number of higher-class schools are inspected, and in Ireland there are about 1,500 superior schools. There are numerous Training Colleges for elementary teachers, and a large number of Science and Art Classes in connection with the Science and Art Department at South Kensington. Medical Schools are attached to most of the large hospitals and some of the universities and schools, and there are several Engineering and Agricultural Colleges, and Naval and Military Schools. THE BRITISH EMPIRE.—Besides Great Britain and Ireland, the British Empire embraces a vast number of Colonies, Protectorates, and Dependencies, including amongst them territories in every quarter of the globe.

In Europe, the British flag floats over *Gibraliar*, which commands the entrance to the Mediterranean, and *Malta*, a fortified coaling-station and entrepôt for British goods.

The British Empire in India extends over a territory nearly one-half the area and about three-fourths the population of the Continent of Europe. Our *Indian Empire* embraces nine Provinces under direct British rule, and a large number of tributary Native States.

Other British Possessions in Asia are Cyprus, in the Eastern Mediterranean; Aden, on the south coast of Arabia, with the islands of Perim and Kuria Muria; Ceylon, a large island in the Indian Ocean to the south-east of India; the Straits Settlements and Protectorates in the Malay Peninsula; Hong Kong and Kowlum in China; and British North Borneo, Sarawak, Brunei, and Labuan in the East Indian Archipelago.

In Africa, we have the West, South, and East African Colonies and Protectorates on the mainland, together with the islands of Ascension and St. Helena off the west coast, and Maurilus, Zanzibar, Pemba, Scychelles, Amirantes, and Socotra, off the east coast. British West Africa includes the Gambia, Sierra Leone, the Gold Coast, Lagos, and the Niger Protectorate, with its dependencies, Sokoto, Gando, Bornu, and Adamawa. British South Africa embraces the Cape Colony, Natal, Bechuanaland, Basutoland, Zululand, and Southern Zambesia. Thea, or British East Africa, a vast region extending from the coast to the Victoria Nyanza and the Upper Nile, and British Central Africa or Northern Zambesia, which includes the inland districts between the Zambesi and Lake Nyassa, together with the Somali Coast Protectorate, complete our possessions on the mainland. The islands of Zanzibar and Pemba were declared a British Protectorate in 1890.

The British Empire in America includes the vast Dominion of Canada, Newfoundland, the British West Indies, British Honduras, British Guiana, and the Falkland Islands.

British Australasia is formed of the five great colonies into which Australia is divided, namely, New South Wales, Victoria, Queensland, South Australia, and Western Australia, together with the islands of Tasmania, New Zealand, Fiji, and the south-eastern part of New Guinea.

In the **Western Pacific**, a number of small islands and island-groups are British Possessions or British Protectorates, but are not included in any colony.

The total area of the British Empire is thus 11 million square miles, or more than *one-fifth* of all the land of the globe, while the **population** numbers over **366** millions, or about one-fourth of the total population of the world.

The British Possessions and Dependencies in Asia alone have an area of nearly 2 million square miles, and a population of over 285 millions; while the Protectorates and Spheres of Influence, defined within recent years in the Dark Continent, are estimated to add 2 million square miles more of land, with perhaps 35 million people, to the already extensive British territories in Africa. Excluding India, the *Colonies* proper have an area of nearly 71 million square miles, and a population of 20 millions.

EXAMINATION QUESTIONS.

1. What rank in the world does Great Britain hold as regards commerce and manufactures? 2. To what is the supremacy of the United 3. What are the chief industries in Great Britain and Ireland? I Give some particulars of each of them. 4. What are the chief features in the vast foreign trade carried on by the United King-dom? What proportion of this trade is contri-buted by Sootland and Ireland?

	Area in sq. m.	Population.		Area in sq. m.	Population.
IN EUROPE :			IN AFRICA :- continued.		
The United Kingdom.	121,481	37,888,153	Legos.	1,071	100.000
England and Wales.	58,196	29.001.018	The Niger Protec-		,
Scotland	80.417	4,033,103	torate	500,000	29,000,000
Ireland	32,583	4,706,162	Ascension	85	360
The Isle of Man	220	55,598	St. Helena.	47	4,116
The Channel Islands	75	92,272	Mauritius	705	390,000
Gibraltar .	2	25,755	Zanzibar and Pemba	985	377,996
Malta	117	165,662	Socotra	1,382	10,000
			IN AMERICA :		
	1,587,104	286.696.960	The Dominion of		
India	944,108	230,030,300	Canada	3,456,383	4,829,411
British India	642,996		Newfoundland .	42,200	197,885
Feudatory States.	25,364	66,107,860 8,008,239	The British West		
Ceylon	8,584	8,008,239 209,291	Indies-		i
Cyprus	70		Jamaica.	4.424	639,491
Aden and Perim .		41,910	The Bahamas	5,450	48,000
The Straits Settle-	1.472	506.577	The Leeward		-,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,
ments British North Borneo		150,000	Islands	701	129,760
	81	6,000	The Windward		
Labuan	50,000	300,000	Islands	508	135,976
Sarawak	8,000		Trinidad & Tobago	1,868	228,757
Brunei	29	221,441	Barbados	166	182,322
Hong-Kong			The Bermudas	20	15,884
			British Honduras .	7,560	81,471
			British Guiana.	109,000	284,887
			The Falkland Islands	6,500	1,789
IN AFRICA :					
The Cape Colony	221,811	1,527,224			
Natal	20,460	543,913	The American services		
Basutoland	9,720	218,902	IN AUSTRALASIA :		
Zululand	8,900	180,000	New South Wales .	810,700	1,134,207
Bechuanaland .	222,000		Victoria	87,884	1,140,411
Zambesia	500,000	-	Queensland	668,497	393,718
British East Africa .	1,000,000	13,500,000	South Australia .	903,690	\$15,048
The North Somali			Western Australia .	1,060,000	49,782
Coast	30,000	240,000	Tasmania	26,215	146,667
The Gambia	2,700	50,000	New Zealand	104,471	626,830
Sierra Leone	15,000	180,000	British New Guinea	88,000	150,000
The Gold Coast .	46,000	1,905,000	Fiji	7,740	121,180

THE BRITISH EMPIRE.

FRANCE.

FRANCE lies on the western side of Europe. It stretches across the continent, from the shores of the Atlantic to the waters of the Mediterranean. It approaches nearer to Britain than any country on the European mainland-the Strait of Dover, which divides the opposite shores of France and Britain, being only twenty-one miles across.

BOUNDARIES.—On the north by the English Channel and Belgium ; on the east by Germany, Switzerland, and part of Italy ; on the south by the Mediterranean Sea and Spain : on the west by the Bay of Biscay.

France is divided from England by the English Channel and the Strait of Dover, from Belgium and Germany by an artificial frontier-line, from Switzer-land by the Jura, from Italy by the Western Alps, and from Spain by the Pyrenees.

EXTENT.—France is about three and a half times larger than England and Wales, its area amounting to 204,000 square miles.¹

The length, along the meridian of 2° E., is about 600 miles.

The breadth, along the 48th parallel, is about 540 miles.

COASTS.—France has three lines of sea-coast. Two of them are continuous-the Channel and the Bay of Biscay ; the third belongs to the Mediterranean. This country is therefore well situated for maritime commerce.

The coasts of France are, except in the north-west, regular and unbroken, especially that portion between the Gironde and the Adour bordering on the The total length of coast-line is 1,500 miles, of which 350 belong to Landes. the Mediterranean, 1,100 to the Bay of Biscay and the English Channel, and the rest to the North Sea.

1. Capes.-Griz Nez' and La Hague on the north-west; Ushant and Bec du Ray on the west.

2. Inlets.-The only considerable openings are the Bay of St. Malo, and the estuaries of the Seine, Loire, and Gironde, and the Gulf of Lions."

3. Islands.—At the entrance of the English Channel, Ouessant (or Ushant); 3. Islands.—At the entrance of the English Channel, Ouessant (or Osmant); in the Bay of Biscay, Belle Isle, * Ré, Oléron, and a few others. In the Mediterranean, the group called Iles d'Hyères, near the coast, and the large island of Corsica, which forms one of the departments. Corsica is an Italian island, but has belonged to France since 1768; *Ajaccio*, the capital, is noted as being the birthplace of Napoleon I. The Channel Islands, off Normandy, belong to England (see page 42).

MOUNTAINS.—France is, in general, a level country; but it is mountainous on some parts of its border-line, and is hilly in portions of the interior, towards the centre and east. The principal mountain-ranges are :---

1. The Alps, which divide France (in the south-east) from Italy, and rise above the snow-line.⁶ Mont Pelvoux (13,400 feet), one of the highest points of the Alps, is within the French border. Mont Blanc^e (15,780)

1. After the Franco-German War of 1870-71,	i
over 5,600 square miles of French territory were	i
transferred to Germany.	ł.
A Gain Wan annu mana	L

1. Gris Nez, grey nose. 3. So called from its bolsterousness, and not rom the city of Lyons, as erroneously supposed. 4. Belle Isle, the beautiful isle.

5. That is, above the line at which, owing to the low temperature consequent on extreme height, the snow never melts. The height of the snow-line in the Alps is between 8,000 and 9,000 feet above the sev. 6. Mont Blanc, the white mountain.

feet), Mont Viso, and Mont Genèvre are on the frontier-line of France and Italy.

2. The Jura Mountains (5,600 feet)—less elevated than the Alps extend along the border of France and Switzerland.

3. The **Pyrenees** form the border between France and Spain, and are snow-covered in their higher peaks and ridges, though not so high as the Alps. The *Pic du Midi* (9,540 feet), one of their loftiest points, is within the French border; *Maladetta* (11,400 feet), *Mont Perdu* (10,900 feet), and others, are on the frontier-line.

4. A long chain of hills, only moderately elevated, stretches through the east of France, in the direction of south-west and north-east. The hills are called the *Cevennes*¹ in their southern division, and the *Vosges* further to the northward.

(1.) The **Cevennes** (5,000 feet) bound on the west the valleys of the Rhone and the Saône.

(2.) The **Vosges** (4,000 feet) form the western limit of a portion of the Rhine valley.

5. To the westward of the Cevennes, and within the former province of Auvergne, is a group of hills which exhibit numerous extinct volcanoes,^{*} marked by their conical summits and the remains of lava and ashes which have issued from them in former ages.

With the above exception, France has a level, or merely undulating, surface. In the south-west corner of the country, between the Lower Garonne and the base of the Pyrenees, there is a remarkable tract known as the Landes, which is a flat sandy waste—lined by sand-hills along the coast, and backed by pineforests towards the interior. The shepherds of the Landes pursue their avocation upon stilts, in order to be above the reach of the sand-drifts.

BIVERS.—France has four considerable rivers, besides many of less size. The four great rivers are the *Scine*, the *Loire*, the *Garonne*, and the *Rhone*. The first three are entirely within France. The upper portions of the Moselle and the Meuse, belonging to the basin of the Rhine, are also within France. The upper part of the Rhone (above the Lake of Geneva) belongs to Switzerland.

1. The Seine has a course of 470 miles, and falls into the English Channel at Havre. It is navigable for 340 miles, to Troyes. Paris and Rouen are on its banks.

2. The Loire rises in the Cevennes and has a total course of 600 miles, but is with difficulty navigable for 450 miles above Nantes.

3. The **Garonne** rises in the Pyrenees, and after a course of 350 miles enters the Gironde. It is navigable to Toulouse, 270 miles from its mouth.

4. The **Rhone** rises in the Alps, and after passing through the Lake of Geneva flows south by Lyons, where it is joined by the *Sadne*, into the Mediterranean. Total length, 530 miles. The current of the Rhone is extremely rapid, that of the Sadne very sluggish.

Other less important streams are the Somme, Vilaine, Charente, and the Adour. The latter, like the Garonne, is subject to floods; it drains an area of 7,000 square miles.

Lakes.—Of the few lakes, the largest are the *Grand Lieu* (30 sq. m.), near the mouth of the Loire, and *Lake Bourget*, in eastern France.

Cevennes, Celtic cofn, a back or ridge.
 bighest, Mont Dore, attains a height of 6,221
 Of the extinct volcances of Auvergne the feet.

CLIMATE.-France is, on the whole, a warmer country than England, especially in the south. The air is generally drier than in our own country. In the north of France, however, the winters are often severe.

The mean annual temperature rises from 50° F. in the north, and 54° in the centre, to 60° in the south.

NATURAL PRODUCTIONS.—The productions of northern France resemble those of England, but its forests are much more extensive; and the bear, wolf, and other wild animals, long extinct in Britain, are still found in the less frequented and mountainous districts.

1. Plants.—In passing from the shores of the Channel to the Mediterranean, the character of the vegetation shows the gradual rise of temperature. The vine is abundantly grown in the east, centre, and south of France, 1 and the olive, the mulberry, and the fig flourish in the plains that adjoin the Mediterranean coast.

It is in the east of France, within the provinces of Champagne and Burgundy, that the wines bearing those names are produced. A district of the south-west, adjoining the river Garonne, furnishes the wines known as claret.

2. Minerals.-In mineral produce, France, though inferior to England, is yet rich. Coal² is much less abundant than is the case in Great Britain, but iron^{*} is plentifully distributed, and several other metals Mineral springs are numerous, especially in the neighbourhood occur. of the Pyrenees.

INHABITANTS.—France has a population of 38 millions, equal to an average of 187 persons per square mile, or rather more than a third of the density in England.

In 1866, the *population* of France was 38,067,064, or 181 to the square mile; but in 1872, mainly owing to the cession of Alsace and Lorraine to Germany, the population numbered only 36,102,921, or 176 to the square mile. At the last census, in 1891, the total number was 38,095,000, or 187 to the square mile.

Race.—Ninety per cent. are *French*—a mixed race, descended from the native Celts and the Roman and Teutonic invaders. In the north-east the *Flemish* element predominates, while in the north-west the Bretons are almost Purely Cellic. The Basques inhabit the south-west districts bordering on the Pyrenees.⁴ In Corsica and Nice are about 300,000 Italians.

Language.—The French language is essentially Latin, and is largely used by the higher classes in every country on the continent. Armoric, a Celtic dialect, is spoken in Brittany, Basque in the south-west, and Italian in Corsica and Nice.

INDUSTRIAL PURSUITS.—About three-fifths of the people are directly engaged in agriculture, ⁵ but France is also a great manufacturing and commercial country, ranking only second to Britain in these respects.

5. Landed property in France is much more

subdivided than in England. The latest esti-mate gives the number of proprietors of estates of 600 acres and upwards at 50,000; those of 60 acres, 50,000; those under 6 acres at 5,000,000. It is estimated that 80 per cent of the soil of France is arable, while the waste and unculti-vated lands amount to 14 per cent; the remain-ing 39 per cent, is covered with forests, vineyards, buildings, &c.

In Normandy and Brittany apple orchards take the place of the vineyards of the warmer castern and southern districts.
 Coal produced in 1880 = 25,600,000 tons (one-seventh that of the United Kingdom.).
 Iron.ore produced in 1888, 5,000,000 tons, or one-sixth that of the United Kingdom.
 The Celtic-speaking people number 1,220,000, and the Basques 116,000.
 Landed number in France is much more

1. Agriculture.-The chief objects of culture are wheat and other grains in the northern and central parts of the country, the vine and the olive in the south. Wines and brandy are important articles of French produce. Beetroot is largely grown in the north of France, for the purpose of making sugar from it.

2. Manufactures. — The silk manufacture is the distinguishing feature of French manufacturing industry; but woollen, linen, and other textile fabrics are also made on a very extensive scale. The silk manufacture is chiefly pursued in the south, at Lyons, Nismes, Avignon, &c. ; the woollen manufacture principally in the north, at Rouen, Amiens, and elsewhere. Fine linens, lace, and cotton goods are also chiefly made in the north of France.

The making of gloves is an important branch of French manufacturing industry. Watches and clocks, ornamental china and glass, jewellery, perfumes, artificial flowers, and various articles of finery, are also characteristic of French taste and skill.

3. Commerce.-The foreign commerce is very considerable, and extends to the most distant parts of the globe, but is chiefly carried on with Great Britain, Belgium, Germany, and Italy.¹ The ports of *Marseilles*, Bordeaux, and Havre are the chief seats of maritime trade. Bordeaux, especially, is distinguished as the emporium of the wine trade.

Imports.²-The principal articles of import are raw cotton and silk, wool, timber, iron, coal, and colonial produce.

Exports.—The great articles of export from France are silks and ribbons, wine and brandy, gloves, and the various other articles mentioned.

Internal Communication.-Good ; by well-made roads, navigable rivers, canals, and an admirable system of railways.

There are about 5.500 miles of navigable rivers, 2,300 miles of canals, 20,000 miles of railways, and upwards of 60,000 miles of telegraphic lines.

GOVERNMENT.—France is a *democratic republic*, based upon universal suffrage.

The head of the executive power is the President of the Republic; the legislative power is vested in the National Assembly, which consists of two Chambers-the Chamber of Deputies and the Senate.

The Annual Revenue and Expenditure each amount to about 130 millions. sterling, while the Public Debt, "the heaviest ever incurred by any nation in the world," amounts to 36,000 millions of frances, or 1,440 millions sterling, equal to £38 per head of the population.

Army and Navy.—The standing army consists of about 600,000 men. maintained at an annual cost of over $\pounds 27,000,000$. The effective war navy consists of nearly 400 vessels, 60 of which are ironclads. In number of vessels and actual strength the Frency navy is not much inferior to that of England, but the latter is being strengthened, and in 1894 will consist of over 500 efficient vessels.

^{1.} Exports from France to the United King-dom and British Colonies in 1880, £45,755,000; im-ports of British and Irish produce into France in the same year, £25,532,000. 2. In 1889-6 the value of the *General Commerce* was, imports, £167,000,000; exports, £144,000,000. Of the 18,000 mercantile vessels belonging to France in 1891, 12,750 are under 50 tons. 270

salling vessels and 243 steamers were engaged in the European seas, and 392 salling vessels and 189 steamers in ocean navigation. Total tonnage. entered in 1890, 20,000,000 : cleared 20,091,000. 8. The cost of the war and foreign occupation of 1570-73, amounted to the enormous sum of

^{£371,515,280.}

Education.—Public education in France is in a much more advanced state than in most European countries, and is directly under the control of the government.

Religion.—The great majority of the French nation are nominally followers of the Church of Rome, but full toleration is allowed to the members of the various Protestant churches. The ministers of religion are supported by the State out of the public funds.

DIVISIONS and TOWNS.—France is divided into 86 Departments and 1 Territory (the remnant of the Haut Rhin Department), the larger number of them named after the rivers which flow through them—as the departments of the Seine, Marne, Meuse, Meurthe, Loire, Charente, &c. Some derive their names from the mountains which they adjoin, as the departments of the Upper and Lower Alps, the Upper and Lower Pyrenees, and the Vosges. The island of Corsica forms one of the departments.

Previous to the great revolution, in the closing years of the last century, France was divided into thirty-four provinces. The names of many of these provinces are continually referred to in the pages of history. Among them are Picardy, Normandy, Brittany, Guienne, Gascony, Navarre, Languedoc, Provence, Dauphiny, Auvergne, Burgundy, Champagne, Lorraine, Alsace, Isle of France, Anjou, and Maine. Their relative positions can only be properly learned from the map.

PARIS, the capital of France, stands on either bank of the river Seine, and partly upon an island in the river. It has nearly $2\frac{1}{2}$ million inhabitants—a greater population than belongs to any other city of Europe, except London. Paris is rich in fine public buildings and works of art, and ranks as the centre of fashion and refinement. **Versailles**, famous for its magnificent royal palace and gardens, is a few miles to the south-west of Paris.

Bouen (112), an ancient city, the former capital of Normandy, on the Lower Seine, is a great seat of the cotton manufacture. Havre (116), at the mouth of the river, is the chief emporium of foreign trade on the French side of the channel, and constitutes the chief outport of Paris. Among the other places of note within the valley of the Seine and its tributaries are **Troyes**, the ancient capital of Champagne (on the Upper Seine), and **Reims** (104), formerly the ecclesiastical metropolis of France, and in the cathedral of which its monarchs were crowned. Reims is in the plain between the Marne and the Aisne, two of the tributaries of the Seine.

To the northward of the Seine valley are the following :--

Amiens (80), the former capital of Picardy, an ancient city on the river Somme, which enters the Channel. Below Amiens, on the same river, is Abbeville. At the mouth of the Somme is St. Valery, the port whence William of Normandy finally sailed for the shores of England in 1066. Dieppe, a flourishing scaport, is to the westward of the Somme. To the north of the Somme is the small town of *Crecy*, and, still further north, the village of *Agincourt*—names which recall the triumphs of the English arms in 1346 and 1415. Boulogne and Calais are scaports on the French side of the narrow strait which separates the adjacent shores of France and England. Dunkirk, a place formerly of great name in history, is to

FRANCE.

the east of Calais. Lille (201), Roubaix (115), Valenciennes, and Arras are inland towns, the three former near the Belgian frontier.

The following towns are situated within the basin of the river Loire:-

Orleans (57), an ancient city in the heart of the country, on the north bank of the Loire; Tours (59), also on the Loire, lower down, distinguished as the seat of the silk manufacture; Nantes (123), a flourishing port on the Loire, 40 miles above its outport St. Nazaire, at the mouth of the river; Poitters, on a small tributary of the Vienne (which joins the Loire), noted in history for the victory gained by the Black Prince in 1356; St. Ettenne (133), to the east of the Upper Loire, the chief seat of the ironworks of France.

Within the tract of country lying between the Lower Seine and Loire—bordering partly on the English Channel and partly on the Bay of Biscay—are the following places :—

Bennes (66), the ancient capital of Brittany, on the river Vilaine, which enters the Bay of Biscay: **Gaen** (on the river Orne, which flows into the Channel), the favourite residence and the burial-place of William the Conqueror; **Cherbourg**, a strongly fortified scaport and naval arsenal, on the coast of the Channel, nearly opposite to the Isle of Wight; **St. Malo**, a port on the coast of Brittany; and Brest (70), an important naval station, at the western extremity of Brittany, upon a fine harbour formed by an inlet of the Atlantic.

The following are within the valley of the Garonne :--

Toulouse (150), the former capital of Languedoc, an inland city of the Upper Garonne; Bordeaux (252), the great port of the wine trade, near the mouth of the river, at the head of the estuary called the Gironde. Bordeaux was long in possession of the English,¹ and was the birthplace of our King Richard II.

In the tract of country lying between the mouths of the Garonne and the Loire are :--

La Rochelle, a seaport on the Bay of Biscay, famous in history for the prolonged siege in 1627-28, when it formed the stronghold of the French Protestants; Rochefort, a naval station, near the mouth of the river Charente; Cognac, also on the Charente, higher up the river, the centre of one of the principal brandy-producing districts.

To the south of the Garonne, towards the foot of the Pyrenees, is the valley of the river Adour.

Bayonne, at the mouth of the Adour, is a commercial port. Bayonets were first made in this town. Pau, an inland town on a tributary of the same river, was the birthplace of Henry IV. of France.

The following towns are within the basin of the Rhone :---

Dijon (60), the former capital of Burgundy, to the west of the Saône; Besançon (56), an ancient and strongly-fortified city (the former capital

^{1.} From 1154 to 1450-a period of nearly three centuries.

of Franche-Comté), on the river Doubs, toward the Swiss border ; Lyons (416), at the junction of the Saône and the Rhone, the great seat of the silk manufacture and the second city of France in point of population; Avignon, important in ecclesiastical history, situated on the left bank of the Rhone, within its lower course; and Nismes (70), in the plain west of the river, a seat of the silk manufacture.

To the south-west of the Rhone valley, along the shore of the Gulf of Lions, are :--

Montpellier (56), Cette, and Narbonne. Cette, which is on the coast, is an important commercial town, the eastern outlet of the great Canal du Midi (or Canal of Languedoc), which connects the river Garonne with the Mediterranean.

On the coast, to the eastward of the Rhone, are :--

Marsellles (404), the chief seat of French commerce in the Mediterranean, and a place of early historic fame, having been founded in the 6th century before the Christian era; Toulon (70), further to the east, a great naval station and arsenal; and Nice (77), a popular winter resort on the Mediterranean coast, near the Italian border.

In the north-east of France, within the valleys of the Moselle and the Meuse (Rhine basin), are the following :--

Nancy (79), the former capital of Lorraine, on the river Meurthe, an affluent of the Moselle; and Verdun, a fortified town on the Meuse.

The island of **CORSICA** contains the small towns of Ajaccio and Bastia, the former celebrated as the birthplace of Napoleon Bonaparte.

The CHANNEL ISLANDS, which lie off the north-western coast of France, belong to Great Britain, and have been attached to the English Crown ever since the date of the Norman Conquest.

COLONIES.—The foreign possessions of France, including Protectorates and Spheres of Influence, have a total area of over 2⁴/₄ million square miles, and a population of about 30 millions.

The Colonial Empire of France is thus about one-fourth that of Great Britain in extent, but the desert region between Algeria and the Sengal and the Niger alone has an area of 14 million square miles, while of the total population (one-tenth of that of the British Colonial Empire) not half a million are French.

The principal *French Colonies* are Algeria, ' in Africa; Cochin China and Tonquin, in Asia; Cayenne, in South America; Martinique and Guadeloupe in the West Indies; and New Caledonia, in Oceania.

The chief French Protectorates are Tunis and Madagascar, in Africa; and Annam and Cambodia, in Asia.

Algeria is not regarded as a colony, but as France, and both Algeria and the Colonies are an integral part of France. The other colonies represented in the Franch Senate and Chamber are also considered to form, politically, a part of 1 of Deputies.

EXAMINATION QUESTIONS.

1. Name, and point out on the map, the boundaries of France. 2. What proportion does the size of France bear to that of England and Wales? 8. What the of see-coast does France posses? 4. What mountains form part of the frontier-

tine of France? 5. Is France generally a level or a hilly coun-

hine of France?
is France generally a level or a hilly country?
a In what part of France is the district called the Landes? What are its features?
Name the four great rivers of France, with the seas into which they flow.
What kind of climate has France compared with that of England?
What productions of the vegetable kingdom characterise the south of France?
10. In what parts of France is the vine most extensively grown?
11. Give a few particulars as to the number, race, and language of the French people.
12. What branch of France?
13. In what parts of France are the silk, woollen, linen, and cotton manufactures chiefly pursued?
14. What articles are chiefly imported and

 tured?
 14. What articles are chiefly imported and exported from France?
 15. Name the three great ports for the foreign commerce of France, and point them out on the man.

16. Under what form of government is France, and what is the prevailing religion? 17. Into how many departments is France divided, and from what are their names in many cases derived?

case derived?
18. Name some of the most important among the former provinces of Franca.
19. On what fivers are the following places stanted: --Paris, Rouen, Troyes, Amiens, Orleans, and Nantes?
39. Name the principal scaports on the French theores of the Channel.
20. In what parts of France are Crecy, Aginovir, and Politiers, and for what are they noted?
22. Where is Lyons, and of what branch of industry is it the sect?
23. Where are Reims, I.a. Rochelle, Rochefort, Montpellier, Dijon, and St. Etiene?
24. On what river is Bordeaux, and for what is it distinguished?

24. On what river is Bordeaux, and un what as it distinguished?
25. On what rivers are Toulouse, Bayonne, Avignon, Besançon, Nancy, and Verdun?
28. Where are Cherbourg, Brest, and Toulou, the three great haval arsenals of France?
27. Where is Marseilles, and for what is it noteworthy?
28. What towns does the island of Corsica continues.

tain? 29. Enumerate the principal foreign posses-

sions of France.

BELGIUM.

BELGIUM¹ is a small country in the west of Europe, and from 1814 to 1830 was politically united to Holland. It is bounded on the north by Holland; on the east by Germany and the Grand Duchy of Luxemburg; on the south by France; and on the west by the North Sea.

EXTENT.—Its area is 11,373 square miles, which is about onefifth the size of England and Wales.

Its greatest extent, from east to west, is about 160 miles, and from north to south about 115 miles. Its sea-coast is only 42 miles in length, and is nowhere broken by capes or inlets. Like that of Holland, it is uniformly flat, but is skirted with natural sand-hills or dunes, which protect the land from being inundated by the sea.

SURFACE.—The greater part of Belgium is level; but in its eastern division the ground becomes hilly, and includes the wooded region of the Ardennes.

Belgium is, physically, a continuation of Holland. The Ardennes have an average elevation of about 1,000 feet, but a few points near Spa exceed 2,000 feet.

RIVERS.—The Meuse (or Maas) and the Scheldt (or Escaut) are the two chief rivers of Belgium, but both of them pass thence into Holland, and have their lower courses in that country.

^{1.} Belgium, the country of the Belga, the old | settled along the banks of the Volga or Balga, inhabitants of the country, who were originally | hence their name.

These rivers have numerous tributaries, as the Rupel and the Lys, which join the Scheldt, and the Ourthe and the Sambre, which unite their waters to the Mense.

The "winding Meuse" has a total course of 550 miles, only 115 of which are in Belgium. The total length of the Scheldt is about 250 miles, about one-half of which is in France. Both are deep and navigable for large vessels.

CLIMATE.—The climate resembles, in most respects, that of England. It is moist in the western, but drier in the eastern. provinces.

The mean annual temperature is about 50° F., and the annual rainfall 28 inches.

PRODUCTIONS.—Belgium is rich in *minerals*, and possesses extensive coalfields¹ and abundant deposits of iron ore, which are very largely worked.

In the production of coal and pig iron, Belgium, notwithstanding its small area, ranks Afth among the countries of the world, the quantities produced being exceeded only by the United Kingdom, the United States, Germany, and France.

INHABITANTS.—Comparatively to its size. Belgium is the most populous country in Europe-probably the most populous in the world.²

It had, in 1890, above 6,000,000 inhabitants-equal to an average of 535 persons to the square mile. The people of Belgium are properly Flemings, and the native dialect of the lower orders is the Flemish tongue; but the French language is uniformly spoken by the upper classes of society.

INDUSTRIAL — The Belgian population are highly distinguished for their industry.

1. Agriculture.—Although the soil consists mainly of clay and sand, nearly every part of the country is well cultivated. Corn, flax, hemp, madder, tobacco, beetroot, and clover are grown.

2. Manufactures.—The manufacture of woollen, linen, lace, cotton, and silk goods is largely carried on. The fine lace of Belgium (produced at Brussels, Mechlin, Antwerp, and elsewhere) is unrivalled in quality. Ironworks are numerous in the eastern part of the kingdom, towards the banks of the Meuse.

3. Commerce.—Colonial produce and wool are the chief imports; and coal, flax, iron, manufactured goods, and agricultural produce, the principal *exports.*³ The principal ports are Antwerp, Ostend, and Ghent.

4. Internal Communication.-Excellent macadamised roads, numerous canals, and an extensive and complete system of railways and telegraphs, radiating from Mechlin (Malines).

1. The two principal coalfields are those of Baimonal's and Liege. The coalfields of Belgium annually produce about 20 million tons. 2. In Brabant, the danity in 1857 was 847 per square mile. In England, the average density in 180 was ski. 1890. Supports, \$17,858,776; Imports, \$13,054,966.

GOVERNMENT.—Belgium is a constitutional monarchy, under a king.¹

The Public *Revenue* amounts to over 164 millions sterling, and the *Expenditure* to 16 millions sterling, while the *National Debt* is nearly 100 millions, most of it incurred in the construction of railways and other public works.

The standing army numbers about 50,000 men, besides which there are about 35,000 National Guards, and the Reserves, which bring up the total war strength to 150,000 men. Many of the towns of Belgium are very strongly fortified. Antwerp is the chief fortress and military arsenal. Belgium has no navy.

Education.—Rather backward. The primary schools are supported partly by the State and partly by the provinces and communes. There are four universities : Brussels, Ghent, Liège, and Louvain.

Beligion.—Nearly all the Belgians belong to the Roman Catholic Church. There are only about 10,000 Protestants, while the Jews number about 4,000.

DIVISIONS and **TOWNS**.—Belgium is divided into nine provinces, the names of which, with their chief towns, are as follows :—

Provinces.	Towns.	Provinces.	Towns.		
East Flanders . Hainault South Brabant.	Bruges, Ostend. Ghent, St. Nicolas. Tournai, Mons. Brussels, Louvain. Antwerp, Mechlin.	Liège Namur	Hasselt, St. Trond. Liège, Verviers. Namur, Dinant. Arlon, Marche.		

BRUSSELS (477) is the capital of Belgium. It stands on the river Senne, in the centre of the kingdom, and is a well-built and attractive city. Among many interesting places in its neighbourhood, the most noteworthy is the battlefield of *Waterloo*, ten miles to the southward.

Belgium formed part of the region known in former ages as the Low Countries, and was the frequent theatre of war. The destinies of rival nations have often been decided on its plains. The sites of numerous *battlefields* are hence found within its limits—among them, Steinkirk (1692), Landen (1693), Ramillies (1706), Oudenarde (1708), Fontenoy (1745), Jemappes (1792), and Quatre-bras, Ligny, and Waterloo (1815).

Antwerp or Anvers (220), on the river Scheldt, is the principal port of Belgium, and the chief emporium of its foreign trade. Mechin or Malines (50), situated nearly midway between Brussels and Antwerp, is noted for its lace manufactures, and is the centre of the Belgian railway system. Ghent (152), an ancient city on the Scheldt, is the principal seat of the cotton manufacture. Bruges (47), further to the westward, has both manufactures and trade. But all of these cities were more populous at a former period—during the 13th and 14th centuries—than they are at the present day. Ostend (24), on the coast of the North Sea, is a port of some note.

I. Prior to the revolution of 1830, it was attached | their independence, and Belgium was formed to the neighbouring kingdom of the Nether- into a distinct kingdom. lands. But the Belgian population then asserted |

Mons (26), the chief town of Hainault, and Namur (29), at the junction of the rivers Sambre and Meuse, are within the coal district of Belgium. Liege (146), in the eastern part of the kingdom, is a flourishing manufacturing city, situated on the Meuse, in the midst of coalfields and ironworks.

HOLLAND. OR THE NETHERLANDS.

BOUNDARIES. -HOLLAND, ' a small country of western Europe, borders on the North Sea, which forms its boundary on the west and north. On the east it is bounded by Germany, and on the south by Belgium.

EXTENT.-The area of Holland is 12,648 square miles, which is somewhat less than one-fourth the size of England and Wales. Its greatest length is 196 miles; its greatest breadth, 109 miles.

COASTS.—Holland has an extensive and varied line of sea-coast. It is low everywhere, being in some places actually below the sea-level, but is generally skirted by natural sand-hills^a or enormous dykes constructed and maintained by the State, which alone prevent the sea from inundating the land.

The principal inlets are the Zuyder Zee, the Dollart Zee, and the estuaries of the Scheldt, the Maas, and the Rhine.

The **Zuyder Zee** was formed by an irruption of the sea in 1282. Before that year the centre of its bed was occupied by a small lake³ which was drained into the North Sea by a river 50 miles long. The **Dollart Zee** was formed by two inundations of the sea, in 1277 and 1287. Among later irruptions may be noticed that of 1421, when the waters of the Rhine burst through a dyke and overwhelmed a large and populous district. Reclus says that "on retiring, the tide left, instead of fields and houses, only an archipelago of marshy islands." This district is now known as the Bies Bosch.⁴ In 1825, another fearful irruption in Waterland destroyed forty villages with their inhabitants.

ISLANDS .- Two principal groups: one in the north-west (Texel, Vlieland, Terschelling, &c.), and another in the south-west (Walcheren, North and South Beveland, &c.).

A glance at the map of Holland will show that the north-western group of islands is evidently the remains of the old coast-line, the surrounding land having been submerged by successive inundations, chiefly that of 1282, when the Zuyder Zee was formed. Walcheren and the other south western islands were most probably insulated by the overflowing of the Rhine, Maas, and Scheldt. These islands are in many places below sea-level, and are only preserved from inundation by artificial embankments.

SURFACE.-Holland is a flat country, and large parts of it are naturally marshy. Along the coasts the land is in some places even lower than the waters of the adjoining sea, and it is only by means

^{1.} Holland, from ollont, marshy ground, ori-ginally the name of the principal province. Stehariands, nether or lower countries, it. & Known to the Romans as Lacus Flavo. & Khown to the Romans as Lacus Flavo. & Khown to the Romans as Lacus Flavo. & Bies, rush ; bosch, a forest, is, a forest of allington to its depressed surface. Also called the Low Countries. From 1814 to 1830 Beigium was politically united to Holland.

HOLLAND.

of mounds (or dykes, as they are called) that it is preserved from inundation. A large portion of the country, indeed, has been actually gained from the sea by the persevering industry of the Dutch people. Many of the shallow lakes or *meers* have been drained of their waters and converted into rich pasture-grounds.

The expense of constructing and maintaining the dykes is enormous-the whole of the wood and granite required being imported from other countries. These dykes are vast embankments of earth, 30 feet high and from 70 to 300 feet broad, strengthened by massive timber work and masonry, and occasionally the submerged piles are protected by iron plates.¹

RIVERS—Holland abounds in inland waters. The Rhine, the Maas, and the Scheldt are the principal rivers; and the two former of these are connected, towards their mouths, by numerous channels, both natural and artificial.

There are many smaller streams-The Yssel, Vecht, Amstel, and others; and the towns are traversed by numerous canals, so that the whole country exhibits a network of water-courses. It is, however, only the lower portions of the three great rivers named above that are within the Netherlands-their middle and upper courses belong to other countries.

The Rhine, Meuse or Maas, and Scheldt enter the North Sea; the Yssel, Vecht, and Amstel fall into the Zuyder Zee, *i.e.*, South Sea. The *delta* of the Rhine has an area of 4,000 square miles, or one-third that of Holland.

LAKES.—There are numerous lakes in Friesland and North and South Holland. Portions of the larger and many of the smaller meres or shallow lakes have been reclaimed, and now form rich and fertile "polders."

CLIMATE.-Holland is rather colder than England, and the winters are of much greater severity. The air is generally moist, especially in the neighbourhood of the coast.

The Zuyder Zee is occasionally, and the North Holland and other canals are always, frozen over in winter.

PRODUCTIONS.—There are no metals and but few *minerals*, Both building-stone and timber are scarce; the former is imported from Norway, and the latter from Norway and Germany. The animals are similar to those of England. Water-fowl, swans, and storks² are very numerous.

INHABITANTS.-Holland has about 41 million inhabitants, an average of 360 persons per square mile. In Belgium the density is 535.

The Dutch belong to the Teutonic or German race; but there are nearly 70,000 Germans, Flemings, Frisians, and Jews. The common language is Dutch. The Frisian language is spoken in Friesland.

INDUSTRIES.—The Dutch (as the people of Holland are called) are distinguished for their industry, frugality and cleanliness, and also by their devotion to maritime pursuits. They are among the best farmers and the most successful traders in the world.

1. Agriculture.—In Holland, a great part of the land is devoted to grazing. Vast numbers of cattle are reared, and the produce of the farm and dairy—cheese, butter, &c.—is of the finest description.

2. Fisheries.—Extensive fisheries, in the North Sea and elsewhere, were formerly carried on by the Dutch; but these, though still considerable, are less important now than they once were.

3. Manufactures.—The principal are shipbuilding, woollen cloths, sugar-refining, and gin-distilling.

4. Commerce.—The possession of the mouths of several great rivers enables the people of Holland to command a large share in the transit of commodities to and from the countries of Central Europe.

The Dutch have for centuries past been the masters of a great carrying trade. In the 16th and 17th centuries, they were, in this respect, the carriers of the world. Though now less in amount than at a former time, the shipping and commerce of the Dutch nation are still very large.

The exports (annual value, 80 millions sterling) consist principally of butter, cheese, cattle, sheep, colonial produce, and the imports (annual value, 90 millions sterling) are manufactured goods, colonial produce, timber, &c. The principal articles of export to the United Kingdom are butter, butterine, live animals, and cheese. The total imports from the United Kingdom, in 1889, amounted in value to 18 millions sterling, and the exports to 29 millions. The mercantile navy of Holland consists of over 500 sailing vessels and 100 steamers, employing about 15,000 men. The principal ports are Amsterdam, Rotterdam, Helder, Middelburg, and Flushing.

The internal trade of Holland is carried on almost entirely by the canals and rivers, which traverse the country in all directions, forming a close network of navigable water-courses. There are good roads along the tops of the dykes, with nearly 1,700 miles of railway, and 3,200 miles of telegraph lines.

Of the canals of Holland, the most noted are the North Holland Ganal (50 miles long, 125 feet broad, and 21 feet deep), from the Helder to the Y; and the deeper North Sea Canal, 142 miles long, from Amsterdam to the North Sea. The latter admits vessels drawing 23 feet.

GOVERNMENT.—The kingdom of the Netherlands is a hereditary monarchy, under constitutional forms.

The executive power is vested in the Sovereign and a Council of Ministers. The *legislative* power is vested in the **States-General**, as the two Houses of Parliament are called. The **Revenue** is over 10 millions sterling, and the **Expenditure** over 11 millions. The **National Debt** amounts to 90 millions.

The Army consists of about 65,000 men, besides the *colonial army* of 30,000, and about 118,000 men enrolled in the *militia*. The Navy is considerable, and consists of 150 steam-vessels, of which 24 are ironclads.

Education.—Education is in an advanced condition, one in eight of the entire population being in attendance at the elementary schools established and partly supported by the State. Higher education is given in the middle and Latin schools and the Universities of I eyden, Groningen, Amsterdam, and Utrecht.¹

Religion.—The *Protestant* religion is followed by the royal family and about two-thirds of the inhabitants, the rest are chiefly *Roman Catholics* and *Jews*.

^{1.} At Delit is a most valuable school for instrucston in hydrographic engineering, such as the Holland. making and repairing of dykes, canals, &c. , a

PROVINCES and TOWNS.—The kingdom of the Netherlands includes eleven provinces. Their names, with the chief towns in each, are :—

Provinces.	Towns.	Provinces.	Towns.
South Holland Zeeland	Amsterdam, Haarlem, Hoorn, Alkmaar. Rotterdam, The Hague, Leyden, Delft. Middelburg, Flushing. Hertogensbosch, Breda Utrecht, Amersfoort.	Overyssel Drenthe Friesland. Groningen	Nimegnen, Zutphen. Zwolle. Meppel, Assen. Leeuwarden. Groningen. Maestricht, Roer- monde.

AMSTERDAM¹ (406), is the largest city of the Netherlands, and the great seat of its foreign trade. It stands at the junction of the river Amstel and the Y (an inlet of the Zuyder Zee), which forms a safe and extensive harbour.

Haarlem (52), is to the west, Leyden and the Hague to the south-west, of Amsterdam. Leyden (45) has a university of great repute, and is celebrated in history for the sieges it underwent in the latter part of the 16th century (1578-74). The Hague (156), is a large and well-built city, the seat of government and the political capital of the kingdom. Rotterdam (203), on the river Mass (the channel of which forms the principal entrance to the Rhine), is the second city of the Netherlands in size and population. Utrecht (85), Mimeguen, Breda, Hertogensbosch, and many other of the cities of Holland, are important seats of trade. The Dutch towns in general have many features in common. They are clean and well-built, with canals running through the principal streets, bordered by rows of trees on either hand. Canals serve in Holland many of the purposes of roads in other countries.

COLONIES.—The Colonial Empire of Holland is extensive and important. The Dutch East and West Indies have a total area of 766,000 square miles, or 60 times that of Holland itself, and a population of nearly 30 millions, or nearly 7 times that of the mothercountry.

The chief foreign possessions of Holland are in the *East Indics*, where the Dutch are masters of Java, with parts of Sumatra and Borneo, and of Western New Guines, besides Celebes, and many of the smaller islands of that region. In the New World, part of Guiana, on the South American mainland, and some of the smaller islands of the West Indies, belong to the Dutch. Of the latter, the principal is Guraçao, near the coast of Venezuela.

QUESTIONS ON BELGIUM AND HOLLAND.

1. How is Belgium bounded?	5. What are the people of Belgium pro-
2. What kind of country is Belgium as to its	perly called? What language is generally
surface?	spoken?
3. Name the chief rivers of Belgium. Into what see do they flow? 4. In what kind of mineral produce is Belgium rich?	6. What articles of industrial produce does Belgium supply?

^{1.} The termination dom means an "embankment;" Amsterdam - the dam of the Amstel.

8. Point on the map to the capital of Belgium. On what river does it stand? 9. Name the chief sequent of Belgium. On what river does it stand? 10. For what are Mechilin, Ghent, Bruges, and Liège respectively noted? 11. What buttefields are included within the

11. What backeteelds are included within the limits of Belgium? 12. How is Holland, or the kingdom of the Netherlands, bounded? 13. What arms of the sea occur on the coast of Holland? Foint them out on the map.

14. What which to bound y is invariant as of the surface?
15. Name the three principal rivers of Holland.
16. What kind of climate has Holland?
27. By what qualities are the Dutch people distinguished?

18. Of what do the productions of Dutch in-dustry chiefly consist, and what kind of trade do the Dutch carry on ?

19. Under what kind of government are Bel-gium and Holland respectively? What is the prevailing religion in each?

30. Name the provinces into which Holland in divided.

31. How is Amsterdam situated, and for what is it distinguished?

18 distinguisticut: 29. Name some of the other principal towns of colland. Which is the seat of government? Holland.

23. By what characteristics (as to appear-ance) are the towns of Holland generally dis-tinguished?

24. Name the principal foreign possessions of the Natherlands

SWITZERLAND.

BOUNDARIES.--SWITZERLAND¹ is an entirely inland country. and is bounded on the north by Germany, on the east by Austria, on the south by Italy, and on the west by France.

The course of the river Rhine marks the chief part of the frontier on the side of Germany ; the highest portion of the Alpine system divides Switzerland from Italy, and the chain of the Jura forms part of the boundary on the side of France.

EXTENT.—Its greatest *length* from east to west is 208 miles. and its extreme breadth from north to south 156 miles. Its area is nearly 16,000 square miles, or considerably less than a third part of the size of England and Wales.

MOUNTAINS.—Switzerland is a mountainous country. Twothirds of its surface consist of high mountains and intervening valleys, the other third is an elevated plain. The mountain land embraces the southern and eastern divisions of the country, the northern and western portions belong to the plain or valley, which stretches across the country in the direction of north-east and south-west, between the Lakes of Constance and Geneva. Mont Blanc, the highest summit of the Alps, is on the border-line of Piedmont and Savoy, and beyond the limits of Switzerland. But many of the principal Alpine summits are either within Switzerland or on its borders, and the most extensive of the *glaciers* are within its limits.

The Alps of Switzerland consist of several more or less continuous chains radiating from Mont St. Gothard, and are distinguished as the Pennine and Lepontine Alps on the frontier between Switzerland and Italy.* The Rhone flows between these mountains on the south and the Bernese Alps on the north. The range east of Mont Bernardin is known as the Rhatian Alps. Besides these principal ranges, there are other lofty groups, such as the Vierwaldstätter Alps, between the rivers Aar and Reuss, and the Suriss Alps. chiefly in the cantons of Glarus and Schwyz.

2. The portions of the Pennine and Lepontine Alps, which form the southern and eastern boun-daries of the canton of the Valais, are frequently called the *Valais* Alps.

^{1.} Fr. La Swisse ; Ger. Schweis, from the forest canton of Schwys, the chief town of which was probably founded, at a very carly period, by a Swedisk colony.

1. The Pennine Alps contain Mont Rosa, 15,217 feet; Mont Cervin or Matterhorn, 14,705 feet; and the passes of Great St. Bernard, 8,120 feet, leading from Martigny to Aosta; and Matter-joch, 11,014 feet, east of the Matterhorn.

2. The Lepontine Alps contain Mont Leone, 11,696 feet; Mont St. Goth-ard, and the *passes* of the Simplon, 6,595 feet, traversed by Napoleon's splendid military road, constructed 1802-6; and the St. Gothard, 6,936 feet, between Altorf and Bellinzona.

3. The Rhætian Alps contain Piz Roseg, 12,936 feet; Ortler Spitz, 12,814; and the passes of the Splügen, 6,946 feet, between Chiavenna and Chur; and Stelvio, 9,172 feet, between the valleys of the Adige and the Adda.

4. The Berness Alps contain the Aletschorn, 13,778 feet; Finster-sarhorn, 14,026 feet; the Jungfrau, 13,671 feet; and the *passes* of the Gemmi, 7,552 feet; the Grimsel, 7,108 feet; and the Furka, 7,990 feet.

BIVERS.—The *Rhine* and the *Rhone* are the two most important of the Swiss rivers, and, with their numerous tributary streams, water by far the greater part of the country. The Aar is a considerable affluent of the Rhine, and is joined by the Reuss, the Lim-mat, and other streams. The Inn, which waters the easternmost part of Switzerland, is a tributary of the Danube. The Tessin (or Ticino), which waters the only one of the Swiss cantons that lies south of the Alps, is an affluent of the Po.

1. The Rhine is formed by the junction of the Vorder Rhine, which rises in Mont St. Gothard, and the *Hinter Rhine*, which rises in the Adula group, and runs north to Lake Constance, whence it flows west to Basle. The celebrated "Falls of the Rhine" are below Schaffhausen. Halfway between these falls and Basle it is joined by the Aar, the principal river of Switzerland.

2. The Rhone rises in the Rhone Glacier, on Mont St. Gothard, and runs west through a valley flanked by the Bernese Alps on the north and the Pennine Alps on the south. Near Martigny it turns north-west and enters Lake Geneva, whence it flows south to the Gulf of Lions. The rapidity of its cur-rent is due to the elevation of its source, which lies about 4,000 feet above the surface of Lake Geneva.

Waterfalls.-Numerous waterfalls occur in Switzerland, and are among the most attractive features of its scenery. The highest of them is the Staubback, formed by a mountain-torrent (an affluent of the Lake of Brienz, in the southern part of the canton of Berne) which falls 800 feet. The Falls of the Rhine, below Schaffhausen, are much admired.

LAKES.—Switzerland abounds in lakes. The principal are Geneva (230 square miles), drained by the Rhone, Constance (183 square miles), Neufchatel (93 square miles), Lucerne (40 square miles), Zurich, Thun, Briens, and Wallenstadt—all lying to the north of the Alps and drained by the Rhine and its tributaries; Maggiore and Lugano, to the south of the mountains, drained by the Ticino, a tributary of the Po.

CLIMATE.-The elevation of the country renders the climate of Switzerland cold on the whole, though in particular localities (and especially in the narrow mountain-valleys) considerable heat is experienced.

The shores of the Lake of Geneva are specially distinguished for their warm and equable temperature. In all the higher regions, however, the winters are long and severe. In some of the deep and narrow valleys many of the inhabitants are afflicted with "cretinism" and "goitre."

PRODUCTIONS.—1. All the ordinary domestic animals of Europe are found. The wild animals include the bear, wolf, lynx, and chamois ; and of the birds the most noted are the eagle, and the lammergeier or bearded vulture.

2. The produce of the soil is varied. The vine flourishes in the lower valleys and plains to a height of about 1,700 feet above the sea-level. Wheat and other grains are also grown. But Switzerland is rather a pastoral than an agricultural country. Timber is abundant upon the mountain-sides.

3. Coal, iron, copper, lead, and rock-salt, are found, but not much worked. There are numerous *mineral springs*, especially in the canton of Berne.

INHABITANTS .- Switzerland has over 3 million inhabitants, which is a large population for so mountainous a country, being on an average 187 persons to the square mile, about the same density as in Scotland.

The Swiss (as the people are called) are not so much a distinct nation as an The swiss (as the people are called) are not so much a distinct nation as an offshoot from the population of the three neighbouring countries.—Germany, France, and Italy. There is no Swiss language. In the western cantons, the people speak *French*; in the east, the *German* language is the common tongue. In one of the Swiss cantons—that of Tessin, to the south of the Alps—the people are of *Italian* origin, and speak the Italian language.¹

INDUSTRIES.—1. The Swiss are a frugal and industrious race. Within the mountain-region the people are chiefly shepherds and herdsmen. Their cows, sheep, and goats constitute their wealth, and furnish their principal occupation. In summer, their cattle are pastured on the mountain-sides; in winter, they descend to the valleys.

2. In the more level parts of the country (that is, in the north and west) manufactures are extensively pursued. Silk and cotton goods are made; so also are watches, musical boxes, and various articles of jewellery. A vast number of watches," the produce of Swiss industry, are annually exported to other countries. Geneva is the principal seat of this manufacture.

3. In spite of great natural disadvantages, the commerce of Switzerland is extensive. The imports are chiefly articles of food,* colonial produce, and raw material for manufacture ; and the exports, manufactured goods and farm produce.*

Internal Communication.—Several magnificent military roads across the Alps, and excellent highroads; nearly 2,000 miles of railway; * a complete system of telegraphs, and an admirably conducted postal service.

GOVERNMENT.—Switzerland forms a federal republic. Each

522,000,000. Trade with Great Britain and the British Colonies averages 55,000,000 annually. 5. About one mile of railway to every eight square miles of area. The Swiss railway system is connected with that of Italy by the St. Gothard Tunnel, and with France by the Mont Cenis Tunnel.

^{1.} According to the census of 1888, 2,092,830 speak German, 637,973 Franch, 186,606 Italian, and 83,878 Roumansch. 9. Value of clocks and watches exported in 1890, 4,000,000. 8. In 1890, 84 million pounds' worth of food stuffa, 6.0, was imported. 6. General imported, 1889, £38,000,000; exports,

SWITZERLAND.

canton has an internal administration of its own, while the public affairs of the whole are regulated by a Parliament (consisting of deputies from the different cantons), which has its sittings at Berne.

The Swiss Parliament consists of two chambers : the "State Council," composed of 44 members, two from each canton, and the "National Council," composed of representatives elected directly by the people. The Federal *Revenue* and *Expenditure* each amount to about 24 millions, while the *Public Debt* is under 24 millions sterling.

The "Federal army" consists of about 120,000 men; the militia or Landwehr of over 80,000. There is also a "Landsturm" or war reserve of over 280,000 men. All men, from the age of 20 to 44, are liable to military service.

Education.—Education is compulsory and highly advanced, especially in the Protestant cantons, where one in five of the population attend school. There are training colleges for teachers in all the cantons. Higher education is given at the universities of Basle, Berne, Geneva, and Zurich.

Religion.—In religion, Switzerland is divided between the *Protestant* and the *Romish Churches*. Rather more than half the population belong to the former, which embraces chiefly the manufacturing cantons of the north and west.

DIVISIONS and TOWNS.—Switzerland comprehends twenty two cantons, the names of which, with the principal towns of each, are as follow :—

Cantons.	Towns.	Cantons.	Towns.
Berne, Soleure, Basle, Zurich, Schaffhausen, . Thurgau, . Appenzell, . St. Gall, . Glarus, Schwyz,	Berne. Soleure (Solothurn). Basle. Aarau. Zurich. Schaffhausen. Frauenfeld. Appenzell. St. Gall. Glarus. Schwyz.	Unterwalden, Uri, Fribourg, Neufchâtel, Vaud, Geneva, Valais,	Zug. Lucerne. Stanz, Sarnen. Altorf. Fribourg. Neufchåtel. Lausanne. Geneva. Sion. Chur or Coire. Bellinzona, Lugano.

The city of **BERNE** (48), which is on the banks of the Aar, ranks as the capital of the Swiss Confederation. Next in importance to it are Geneva, Zurich, and Basle, the first named of which has a greater population than any other town in Switzerland.

Geneva (73) lies at the foot of the beautiful lake called by its name, where the Rhone issues from its waters. Besides its manufacture of gold watches, Geneva is highly distinguished as a seat of learning, and was the early stronghold of the Reformed Church. Zurton (28, *with suburbs*, 90), also distinguished for its literary culture, is at the northern extremity of the Lake of Zurich, at the outlet of the river Limmat, which afterwards joins the Aar. Basle, or Basel (70), is in the north-west corner of Switzerland, at the great bend of the Rhine, and is the seat of considerable trade.

The Lake of Lucerne, in the heart of the mountain country, is enclosed by the cantons of *Schwyz, Uri, Unterwalden*, and *Lucerne*—known as the "forest cantons," the cradle of Swiss independence and the centre of Roman Catholic Switzerland. The well-known summit of the *Rigi* rises above the north-eastern shores of the lake.



QUESTIONS ON SWITZERLAND.

1. Name the boundaries of Switzerland. What natural features do they embrace? 2. What kind of surface does Switzerland

exhibit? 8. Name some of the principal Alpine summitse that are within, or on the bordens of, Switzer-land, Which is the highest of the number? 4. Name some of the mountain passes that belong to the Swiss Alps. 5. Mention the principal rivers of Switzer-land, and briefly describe the courses of the Rhine and briefly describe the courses of the Rhine she principal lakes. 7. What is the bichest of the Savier state.

7. What is the highest of the Swiss waterfalls called? In what canton is it ?

8. What productions of the soil belong to Switzerland? 9. What languages are commonly spoken by the Swim people? 19. What industrial pursuits distinguish the

Swiss nation? 11. Under what form of government is Swit-seriand?

scranger 12. How many cantons does Switzerland em-brace? Which among them contains the seat of the general government? 13. In what parts of the country are the dition of Geneva, Zurich, and Besle? For what are the two former distinguished?

GERMANY.

GERMANY includes that portion of Central Europe inhabited chiefly by German-speaking peoples, but neither the German provinces of Austria nor the German cantons of Switzerland are within the limits of the German Empire, which is a Federal Union of 25 States and the "Reichsland," or Imperial Territory, of Alsace-Lorraine.

BOUNDARIES.—The German Empire is bounded on the north by the North Sea, Denmark, and the Baltic; on the south by Switzerland and Austria; on the east by Austria and Russia; and on the west by France, Belgium, and Holland.

EXTENT.—The total area of the German Empire is 211,000 square miles, or about three and a half times that of England and Ŵales.

The greatest length, from south-west to north-east, is about 850 miles. The greatest breadth, from north to south, is about 580 miles.

COASTS.—The total length of the coast-line is about 1,200 miles, of which 350 miles belong to the North Sea, and 850 to the Baltic. There are numerous inlets, but few good harbours. The principal inlets are the Jahde, the estuaries of the Weser and Elbe, the Gulf of Lübeck, Stettiner Haff, and the Gulf of Danzig, with the Frische Haff¹ and Kurische Haff.

The Frische Haff and the Kurische Haff are bounded on their seaward side by narrow "tongues" (*nehrungen*) of land. Neither of them exceeds two or three fathoms in depth. Wilhelmshaven, on the Jahde, is a strongly-fortified naval port, the "Sebastopol of the North Sea."

ISLANDS.—The Frisian Islands and Heligoland in the North Sea; Alsen, Fehmern, and Rügen in the Baltic.

The North Frisian Islands, and Alsen and Fehmern, were taken from Den-mark in 1864. Rügen was ceded to Prussia in 1814. Heligoland,^a about 50 miles north-west of the estuary of the Elbe, formerly belonged to Denmark, but was taken by the English in 1807, and ceded to Germany in 1890.

^{1.} Frische Haff, freshwater sea. 2. Heligoland, Holy land; so called because | goddess.

NATURAL FEATURES.—Germany is for the most part level, but includes many detached groups of high ground within its southerly and westerly divisions. The chief mountain-ranges are the *Eifel* and the Vosges, on the left bank; and the Schwarz Wald,¹ Taunus, and Wester Wald, on the right bank of the Rhine; the Böhmer Wald, Erz Gebirge,³ and Riesen Gebirge³ on the Austrian frontiers; and the Harz Mountains, Teutoburger Wald, Vogelsberg, and Thüringer Wald, between the basins of the Elbe and the Rhine;

The highest point in Germany north of the Danube is Schneekoppe, 5,274 feet, in the Riesen Gebirge. The peak of **Zng-spitz**, in South Bavaria, attains an elevation of 9,716 feet. The absolute height of the ranges of middle Germany seldom exceeds 3,000 feet. The mean elevation of the high plains of Bavaria is 1,600 feet, and of the whole empire about 700 feet.

BIVERS.—The principal rivers are the *Rhine, Ems, Weser*, and *Elbe*, flowing into the North Sea ; the *Oder, Vistula*, and *Niemen*, flowing into the Baltic; and the *Danube*, flowing into the Black Sea.

1. The **Rhine**.—The sources and upper course of the Rhine are in Switzerland; the portion between Lake Constance and Basle forms the boundary between Switzerland and Germany. From Basle it flows north to Mentz, then, after a short curve to the west, finally turns north-west at Bingen and enters Holland near Cleves. The *tributaries* of the Rhine within Germany are the Neckar, Main, Lahn, Ruhr, and Lippe on the right bank, and the Moselle on the left. The Rhine is navigable from the sea to the Falls of Schaffhausen. The portion within Germany, especially between Mentz and Bonn, is celebrated for its beauty, and the *Falls of the Rhine*, near Schaffhausen, are much admired.

2. The Ems rises in the Teutoburger Wald, and flows into the Dollart See, in the north-west of Germany, after a course of 258 miles.

3. The Weser (380 miles long) is formed by the junction of the Fulda and Werra at Münden, and is navigable throughout the greater part of its course.

4. The Elbe rises in the Riesen Gebirge, and flows in a generally north-west direction to the North Sea. Total length, 600 miles. Tributaries: the Mulde and Saale on the left bank, and the Spree and Havel on the right.

5. The Oder rises in the Sudeten Gebirge, and flows north-west into the Stettiner Haff. Its principal affluent is the Warta. Total length, 553 miles.

6. The "lower" course only of the **Vistula** and **Niemen** are within Germany; the rest belong to Russia. The Vistula enters the Gulf of Danzic by two mouths, the Niemen falls into the Kurische Haff.

7. The Danube rises in the Schwarz Wald, and enters Austria at Passau, after receiving the Iller, Lech, and Isar, from the Tyrolese Alps.

LAKES.—Lake Constance, or Boden See, on the south; Ammer See, Würm See, König See, and Chiem See, in Bavaria.

CLIMATE.—The climate of Germany resembles, in the main, that of the corresponding latitudes of Britain; 'it is, however, somewhat colder, and the winters are more severe.

In some of the uplands the winters are remarkably severe, snow often lying on the ground from October to May; but in some of the lower river-valleys the climate is delightful, and the vine grows to perfection.

PRODUCTIONS.—The *forests* are extensive, and give shelter to numerous wild animals, such as the wolf, wild boar, and various deer. The minerals include coal, with iron and other metals; these are chiefly found in the Rhine province, and in the neighbourhood of the Harz Mountains. Amber, precious stones, and some gold, silver, and copper, are also found.

Among the many mineral prings of Germany, the most famous are those of Baden-Baden, Selters, Wiesbaden, and Aix-la-Chapelle.

INHABITANTS.—The total population of the empire, according to the last census (1890), was 492 millions, or an average of 234 persons to the square mile," or less than half that of England."

Nearly 90 per cent. of the people are *Germans*, and the German language is almost universally spoken. There are about 2,500,000 Poles, 500,000 Jews, and 280,000 Walloons and French.

INDUSTRIES.—Agriculture has hitherto been, and in some of the German States still is, the leading industry, but, as a whole, Germany is becoming more and more a manufacturing country, and its textile and metal goods now successfully compete with British, French, Belgian, and American manufactures, while, as a commercial nation, Germany is second only to England, the greatest commercial country in the world.

1. Agriculture employs two-fifths of the German population. The various grains, especially rye (which forms the chief food of the lower orders), are very largely raised; as also is *flax*, for the supply of the linen manufacture, and *beetroot*, for the manufacture of sugar. The vine is extensively grown in Bavaria, Würtemberg, and the Rhine provinces.

2. Manufactures.-North Germany, on the whole, is more manufacturing than its southern half, and Prussia takes the lead in this department of industry. The linen manufacture is extensively pursued in Silesia; the cotton, woollen, and silk manufactures, with important iron and steel works in the western half of the kingdom. Berlin is especially noted for its glass, porcelain, jewellery, and fancy goods in general.

3. Commerce.-The trade of the German Empire is under the control of the *Zollverein* or Customs League formed in 1818, and renewed in 1865, and which at present embraces all the German States. The leading imports, • in order of value, are raw cotton and wood, coffee, raw sitk, rye, woollen yarn, barley, hides, petroleum, horses, and wheat. The chief exports, arranged similarly, are sugar, mixed sitk and cotton cloth, woollen fabrics, haberdashery, leather goods, coal, hosiery, paper, cotton cloth, wooden wares, aniline dyes, and hops.

Ports.-The chief ports of Germany are Hamburg (the commercial capital of the empire); Bremen, on the North Sea; and Stettin, Kiel, Lübeck, Danzic, Königsberg, and Memel, on the Baltic.

4. Total imports, 1990, £213,645,000. 5. Total exports, 1890, £170,490,000. 6. Exports from Germany to the United King-om, in 1890, £26,000,000; imports therefrom,

^{1.} Amber is found on the shores of the Baltic. 2. Excluding Hamburg, the average is greatest in Saxony, where it is 550 per square mile. 3. The density of population in England, in 1. Export 3. The density of population in England, in 1. Source Store S

Internal communication is maintained by good roads and about 26,000 miles of railways, extending through every part of the country, and connecting all its chief towns with one another, and with the North Sea and Baltic ports, and also, through Switzerland and Austria, with the Adriatic and Mediterranean ports.¹ The river-navigation is extensive, and is greatly facilitated by canals joining the principal navigable rivers.

GOVERNMENT.—By the constitution of April 1871, all the German States "form an eternal union for the protection of the realm and the care of the welfare of the German people." The *legislative* power is vested in two Chambers—the *Bundesrath* or Federal Council, representing the States in union ; and the *Reichstag* or Diet of the Realm, elected by the people. But the supreme direction of all military and political affairs is in the hands of the King of Prussia, who is thus the Emperor of Germany.

Finance.—The general *Revenue* and *Expenditure* of the empire for 1891-2 are each estimated at about 56 millions sterling. The *Imperial Debt* is under 50 millions.

DIVISIONS.—Before the Austro-Prussian war of 1866, Germany was politically divided into numerous States (originally thirty-nine in number), which together formed the Germanic Confederation, with Austria at the head, and Prussis occupying the second place in rank and importance. The decisive success gained by the arms of Prussia in the campaign of that year involved the break-up of the old confederation, and the establishment of a "North German Confederation," from which Austria was expressly excluded.

The Franco-German war of 1870-71 involved another (and more important) change, viz. --the creation of a new German Empire, in favour of the royal house of Frussia. All the German States (Austria, Luzemburg, and the petty principality of Liechtenstein excepted) are embraced within the newly-constituted empire. Alsace and the chief part of Lorraine—previoualy attached (the latter during upwards of a century, the former for nearly double that period) to France—were restored to Germany, and form a distinct dependency of the Empire. Prussia is thus the recognised head of the German nation, and is virtually sovereign over fifty millions of people—the vast majority of

Army and Navy.—Every German, being of full age and otherwise fit, is liable to military service. The Imperial army, on the peace footing, numbers upwards of 490,000 men, but in war time over 1½ millions, besides other reserve forces, which bring up the total of trained soldiers to 3½ millions, while the total available force of all classes is not less than 5½ millions. The German navy consists of 80 vessels (of which 30 are ironclads) manned by 18,000 men. The naval ports are Wilhelmshaven on the North Sea, and Kiel on the Baltic.

EDUCATION.—Education is general and compulsory throughout the empire. Public *elementary schools* in every town and village. Twenty-one *universities*, of which fourteen are Protestant.

In Prussia there are eleven grade schools, but attendance is compulsory only at the elementary schools. The fees at the higher schools are so low that they are attended by the children of the lower as well as the middle and higher classes, hence the superiority of the Germans to all other European nations in point of education and general culture. The whole of the educational establishments of Prussia, both public and private, are under the control of the Minister

1. The railway-system of Germany is connected with that of Italy via the great St. Gothard Tunnel.

of Public Instruction, but the universities are only directly maintained by the Government : all other schools and colleges being mainly supported from local rates.

RELIGION.—The majority of the Prussians are *Protestants*, but South Germany is chiefly Roman Catholic. There are over half a million Jews.

COLONIAL POSSESSIONS.—The German annexations in Africa and the Pacific are estimated to have an area of 1 million square miles, and a population of 51 millions.

The most important of these so-called "colonies" in the Western Pacific are Kaiser Wilhelms Land in New Guinea, the Bismarck Archipelago, the Solomon Islands, and the Marshall Islands.

In Africa, the German possessions embrace three distinct and extensive regions, and one smaller territory.

German East Africa embraces the vast territory lying between the Rovuma River and Kilimanjaro, and extending inland from the cost to Lakes Nyassa, Tanganyika, and the Victoria Nyanza. The southern boundary is formed by the Rovuma, and a line drawn north of the Stevenson Road from Lake Nyassa to Lake Tanganyika. Between Tanganyika and the Victoria Nyanza the Ger-man boundary "marches" with that of the Congo Free State. The coast belt was, until 1890, a part of the Sultanate of Zanzibar, but the Sultan's right was then acquired by Germany.

German South-West Africa extends along the coast for over 900 miles be-tween the mouth of the Orange and that of the Cunene River, and inland to the western boundary of British Bechuanaland, and, in the extreme north-east, along the Chobe Valley to the Zambesi itself. Both in Damaraland, north of Walish Bay (which remains British), and in Namaqualand to the south, Ger-man authority is only nominal, and the country is almost entirely undeveloped.

The German Protectorate of the Cameroons has a sea-board of 190 miles on the Bight of Biafra, and extends inland to the meridian of 15° E. The soil is fertile, and capable of producing cocoa, tobacco, and other tropical productions in abundance.

Togoland, with Little Popo and Porto Seguro, situated on the Slave Coast, in Upper Guinea, has an area of 16,000 square miles.

QUESTIONS ON THE GERMAN EMPIRE.

1. How is the "German Empire" bounded? 2. Name the principal inlets and islands. 3. Describe briefly the natural features of Germany, noting specially the highest moun-tains and most important rivers.

A. Enumerate the principal lakes.
 5. State what you know of the climate of Germany?
 6. What are the chief productions of Ger-

7. What is the total population of the empire? To what race does the vast majority of the people

What are the chief industrial pursuits of the Gorman people?
 What is the *Zollversin*, and when was it

formed?

10. Enumerate the principal articles of export and import. 11. What are the means of inter-communica-tion?____

17. What do you know of the colonial posses-sions of Germany ?

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	States.	Capitals.
1. Kingdoms of	PRUSSIA	Berlin. Munich. Stuttgart. Dresden.
2. Grand Duchies. of	BADEN	Carlsruhe. Schwerin. Darmstadt. Oldenburg. Weimar. Neu Strelitz.
3. Duchies of	BRUNSWICK	Brunswick. Meiningen. Dessau. Gotha and Coburg. Altenburg.
4. Principalities of	LIPPE DETMOLD	Detmold. Arolsen. Budolstadt. Sondershausen. Gera. Buckeburg. Greiz.
5. The Hanse Towns of	'Hamburg. Lübbek. Bremen.	
6. Reichsland of .	Alsace-Lorraine	Strassburg. Metz.

•

The following table shows the States included in the German Empire :--

H

I. PRUSSIA.

PRUSSIA¹ includes about two-thirds of the total area of the German Empire, and is bounded on the *north* by the North Sea, Denmark, and the Baltic; on the *east*, by Russia; on the *south*, by Anstria, Saxony, Thuringia, Bavaria, Baden, and others of the smaller German States; on the *west*, by Holland, Belgium, the Grand Duchy of Luxemburg, and the Reichsland of Alsace-Lorraine.

The greatest length from the western frontier, near Maestricht, to the extreme eastern limit of East Prussia, is 740 miles; and the greatest breadth, from the northern limit of Schleswig-Holstein to the southern borders of the Rhine Province, is 455 miles. The area is 136,000 square miles, nearly two and a half times that of England and Wales.

The natural features of Prussis have been already noticed in the preceding description of Germany. The mountains, rivers, and lakes within Prussia may be distinguished from those of the rest of the empire by referring to the map.

INHABITANTS.—Prussia now contains nearly 30 million inhabitants, an average of over 220 to the square mile, or considerably less than one-half the density in England.

About 24 millions are *Poles*, who form the majority in the provinces of Posen and Prussia Proper; the remainder are *Germans*. The most thickly-populated portions of the kingdom are the Rhine countries and the province of Silesia.

Education is in a highly advanced state among the Prussian people, and the higher schools and universities, as well as the elementary schools, are under the direct control of the Government.³ Prussia has also numerous Schools of Agriculture, Forestry, and Mining.

Religion.—The majority of the people of Prussia are *Protestants*, but there are nearly 10 million *Roman Catholics*, chiefly in the Rhine Province, Posen, and Brandenburg. *Jews* are numerous in the towns.

GOVERNMENT.—The kingdom of Prussia is a hereditary monarchy, the legislative authority being vested in the Sovereign and a representative House of Lords and an elected Chamber of Deputies.

Provinces. Chief Towns. Provinces. Chief Towns Berlin, Potedam, Frankfort on-the-Oder. Königsberg, Memel, Tilsit. Danzig, Elbing, Thorn. Stettin, Stralsund, Swine munda. Hanover, Göttingen, Hilde-sheim, Emden. Münster, Münden, Dort-mund. Brandenburg Hanover East Prussia West Prussia Pomerania Westphalia. mund. Frankfort-on-the-Main, Oassel, Hanau, Wies-baden, Homburg. Cologne, Bonn, Düsseldorf, Barmen, Essen, Aachen (Aix-ia-Otapelle), Elber-feld, Orefeld, Coblens, Trères Hessen-Nassau Posen, Bromberg. Breslau, Gorlitz, Liegnitz. Magdeburg, Halle, Erfurt. Posen . Silesia . Rhine Province . AXOBY lohle Holstein . Altona, Kiel, Tönning, Flensburg. Très Hohenzollern Hechingen, Sigmaringen.

DIVISIONS.—Prussia contains the following provinces and towns :—

Of these provinces, Schleswig-Holstein was acquired from Denmark in 1864; Hanover and Hessen-Nassau (within which latter are embraced the former

2. By the laws of Prussia, parents are compelled to send their children to school whether they can pay the fees or not.

^{1.} Pressis, from Borussis, the country of the Borussi, who formerly inhabited what is now Prussia Proper.

duchy of Nassau, and the electorate of Hessen-Cassel, together with the city of Frankfort-on-the-Main) were absorbed within Prussian rule after the Austro-Prussian war of 1866. Hohenzollern is a detached territory, enclosed between the States of Wirtemberg and Baden.

BERLIN (1,574), the capital of Prussia, and the largest city of Germany, is on the river Spree, which joins the Havel (an affluent of the Elbe). Berlin is in all respects a flourishing city, one of the finest of European capitals in point of external aspect, and is noted for its iron, porcelain, and other manufactures. **Potsdam** (51), to the south-west of Berlin, forms the headquarters of the Prussian army.

Breslau (300), in Silesia (on the river Oder), is the second city of Prussia in point of population, and is the centre of extensive trade. Magdeburg (201), in Prussian Saxony, is on the river Elbe. Stettin (116), near the mouth of the Oder), is one of the principal scaports. Danzig or Dantxic (120) is also a great seat of the foreign commerce of Prussia; it lies near the Baltic, upon one of the channels through which the Vistula reaches the sea. Königsberg (161), the capital of East Prussia, is further to the eastward, near the outlet of the river Pregel. Memel, another important scaport, lies at the entrance of the river Niemen into the Kurische Haff—an inland extension of the Baltic.

The **RHINE PROVINCE** contains a greater number of large towns than any other part of the Prussian territory.

Cologne (282), the most considerable, is on the left bank of the Rhine; its cathedral, and its well-known "Eau de Cologne," give it celebrity. Elberfeld (107), with the adjoining town of Barmen (103), is the chief seat of the cotton manufacture. Aachen (116) is a populous manufacturing city, to the westward of Cologne, and near the Belgian frontier. Düsseldorf (146) is an important centre of trade and industry on the Rhine, 22 miles north of Cologne. Essen (66) has large coal and iron mines; here also are the famous "Krupp" Works. Trèves is on the banks of the Moselle; Coblens is at the junction of that river with the Rhine.

The city of **HANOVER** (165), the capital of the former kingdom of that name, stands in the midst of the plain of northern Germany, on the little river Leine, an affluent of the Weser.

Göttingen, to the southward of Hanover, is the seat of a celebrated university. Emden, the chief port of the Hanoverian territory, is at the outlet of the river Ems into the Dollart, a gulf of the North Sea. Cassel, the former capital of electoral Hesse, stands on the river Fulda, one of the two main affluents of the Weser. Wiesbaden (56), the capital of the former duchy of Nassau, lies a short distance from the right bank of the Rhine, below the junction of the Main. Frankfort-on-the-Main (180), formerly a free city, is situated, as the name implies, on the river Main, which joins the Rhine about twenty miles below. It was formerly the seat of the Germanic Diet. Homburg is a few miles to the north of Frankfort.

SOHLESWIG-HOLSTEIN consists of two extensive tracts of country (divided by the course of the little river Eyder, which flows into the North Sea), which, prior to 1864, had been attached during several centuries to the crown of Denmark.

Altona (143), the largest city of this territory, lies on the Elbe, immediately below Hamburg, of which it forms indeed a mere suburb. Kiel (52), in a more northwardly part of Holstein, lies at the head of an inlet of the Baltic, and has a good harbour. Tönning is a port on the North Sea, at the mouth of the Eyder. Lauenburg is on the right bank of the Kibe, above Hamburg.

II. SMALLER STATES OF NORTH GERMANY.¹

The smaller States of North Germany, included within the German Empire, comprise the *Kingdom* of **Saxony**; the *Grand-Duchies* of **Mecklenburg-Schwerin**, **Mecklenburg-Strelitz**, Oldenburg, **Saxe-**Weimar; the *Duchies* of Brunswick, Anhalt, **Saxe-Meiningen**, **Saxe-Coburg-Gotha**, **Saxe-Altenburg**; the *Principalities* of Lippe-Detmold, Waldeck, Schwarzburg-Eudolstadt, Schwarzburg-Sondershausen, Reuss, Schaumburg-Lippe, together with the Hanse *Toums*-Hamburg, Lübeck, Bremen, and the *Reichsland* of Alsace-Lorraine, acquired from France in 1871.

SAXONY is intermediate in position between Prussia and the Austrian province of Bohemia, and is traversed by the river Elbe. It is bordered, on the side of Bohemia, by the Erz Gebirge and the Riesen Gebirge. Its chief towns are Dresden (the capital), Leipzig, Meissen, Chemnitz, and Freiberg.

Dresden (276) stands beside the river Elbe, and is distinguished by its general beauty of aspect and its fine collections of works of art. Meissen, also on the Elbe, a few miles below Dresden, is celebrated for its porcelain. Letpsig (293, or with suburbs 353) is situated near the river Elster, in the plain which lies to the west of the Elbe ; it is distinguished for its university and its book trade, as well as for the great victory gained by the German over the French arms in 1813. Chemnits (139), the "Manchester of Saxony," is the principal manufacturing town ; and Freiberg is the centre of an important mining district.

MECKLENBURG, divided into two distinct grand-duchies, of which the more westward, to which Schwerin belongs, is in the north of Germany, bordering on the Baltic Sea.

Its chief towns are Schwerin and Neu Strelltz, the respective capitals of its two divisions.

OLDENBURG is in the north-west of Germany. It borders on the North Sea, and is enclosed on the land side by the territory of Prussia.

Its chief town is Oldenburg (20), on the river Hunte, a tributary of the Weser.

				Area.	Pop.			Area.	Pop.
Saxony	••	••	••	5,856	8,182,000	Saxe-Coburg-Gotha	••	765	199,000
Mecklenburg-Sch	werin	••	••	5,197	575,000	Saxe-Altenburg	••	517	161,000
Mecklenburg-Stre	litz	••	••	1,144	96,000	Lippe	••	475	128,000
Oldenburg	••			2,508	841,000	Schaumburg-Lippe	••	183	87,000
Saxe-Weimar				1,404	314,000	Waldeck	••	438	56,000
Brunswick	••		••	1,441	872,000	Schwarzburg-Rudolstadt	••	367	84,000
	••	••	••	917	248,000	Reuss	••	446	166,000
Saxe-Meiningen	••		••	964	215,000	Schwarzburg-Sondershausen	••	837	74,000

1. The area (square miles) and population of the North German States are :--

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SAXE-WEIMAR, the most considerable of the smaller Saxon States, lies in the very centre of Germany, within and adjoining the tract known as the Thuringian Forest.

Its chief towns are Weimar, the grand-ducal capital, and Jena.

BRUNSWICK is a small inland territory, completely enclosed by the Prussian dominions.

Its chief town, Brunswick (100), lies on the river Ocker, a tributary of the Aller, which flows into the Weser.

ANHALT comprehends a small, but for the most part a level, tract of country crossed by the river Elbe, and enclosed by the Prussian territory.

It contains the towns of Dessau, the capital, on the Mulde, near its junction with the Elbe, and Bernburg, on the Saale, an affluent of the Elbe.

SAXE-MEININGEN, SAXE-COBURG-GOTHA, and SAXE-ALTENBURG, all lie within the same central hill-region as Saxe-Weimar, and are traversed by the heights of the Thuringian Forest.

The chief towns are respectively Meiningen, on the Werra, an affluent of the Weser; Coburg, on the Itz, an affluent of the Main; Gotha, on the Leina; and Altenburg, on the Pleisse, a tributary of the Elster.

LIPPE and SCHAUMBURG-LIPPE are two adjoining territories within the basin of the Weser in the north-west of Germany, and completely enclosed by Prussia.

The towns of Detmoid and Buckeburg are their respective capitals.

WALDECK is a small territory to the south of Lippe, and also enclosed by Prussia.

Arolsen, the capital, lies 25 miles north-west of Cassel.

SCHWARZBURG-RUDOLSTADT and SCHWARZBURG-SONDERSHAUSEN are small (and partly detached) territories in the central part of Germany, enclosed between Prussia and the lesser Saxon States. The former embraces part of the Thuringian Forest.

Rudolstadt and Sondershausen are their respective capitals.

REUSS embraces some small tracts of country between Prussia and the various Saxon States, watered by the Elster and Saale.

It is divided into the Elder and Younger branches; the town of Greitz is the capital of the former, Schleitz of the latter.

THE HANSE TOWNS.—For several centuries the cities of Hamburg, Lübeck, and Bremen enjoyed the privileges of distinct States, but in 1888 they ceased to be "Free Ports," and joined the *Zollverein* or German Customs Union.¹

Hamburg (324) is the great emporium of the foreign commerce of Germany, and the seat of an immense trade with all nations. More than half the trade of Germany with other countries passes through Hamburg, and the commerce between it and the United Kingdom is very large; the imports from the United Kingdom alone amounting to more than 20 millions sterling. This great port is situated on the north bank of the Elbe, 70 miles from the sea. Curhaven, at the mouth of the Elbe, also belongs to Hamburg.

^{1.} Hamburg, Lübeck, and Bremen were the commerce of north-western Europe, and at the principal dities in the famous HARSANTO LEAGOR, present day they are still the most importants which, during the Middle Ages, controlled the commercial centres in the empire.

Lübeck (68) stands on the Trave, which enters the Baltic adjacent to the east coast of Holstein. It is less important now than at a former period. Travemunde, at the mouth of the Trave, is its outport.

Bremen (125), situated on the Weser, 40 miles above its mouth, is only second to Hamburg as a seat of commerce. Large vessels load and unload at Bremerhaven, at the mouth of the river.

ALSACE-LORRAINE, the territory transferred from France to Germany on the conclusion of the war of 1870-71, embraces a tract lying along the left bank of the Rhine, between that river and the chain of the Vosges (Vogesen) Mountains, and stretching thence along the former German border, in the direction of Luxemburg. Part of the Moselle valley, as well as the left bank of the Rhine from the Swiss border southward to the parallel of 49°, is within its limits. The "Reichsland" or Imperial Territory of Alsace-Lorraine has a total area of 5,670 square miles, and a population of upwards of $1\frac{1}{2}$ millions, of whom scarcely a quarter of a million speak French.

ALSACE (German, *Elsass*) includes Strassburg (123), a large and ancient city, seated near the left bank of the Rhine, beside its affluent, the III; Mühlausen (70), a great centre of cotton and other manufacturing industry, situated between 50 and 60 miles further south; and Coimar, near the foot of the Vosges, about 40 miles south-west of Strassburg.

The principal place within the portion of LORBAINE (German, Lothringen) transferred to Germany is Metz (54), a strongly fortified town on the Moselle, and of much note in former as well as in recent history.

III.-STATES OF SOUTH GERMANY.

The following States of South Germany are included within the German Empire¹:—The Kingdoms of Bavaria and Würtemberg and the Grand Duchies of Baden and Hesse.

The southern half of Germany is more elevated and mountainous than North Germany. It consists of plateaux of moderate elevation, crossed by detached mountain chains and groups, and rising gradually to the southward into the high region of the Alps.

The Danube (German, *Donau*) is the great river of South Germany, which it crosses from west to east, passing below Vienna into Hungary. Among the numerous affluents of the Danube, within the German portion of its course, are the Lech, Isar, and Inn, on its right or southern bank; the Altmühl, Nab, Regen, and March, on its left or northern bank.

BAVARIA has an area of nearly 30,000 square miles, and a population of about $5\frac{1}{2}$ millions, and thus, in point of size and population, ranks next to Prussia among the German States. It forms an upland plain or tableland about sixteen hundred feet above the level

1. The area (in square miles) and population (according to the last Census) of the South Ger-	Würtemberg Baden			 Area. 7,619	Pop. 1,996,000 1,601,000
man States are :- Area. Pop.	Hesse			 5,891 3,000	956,000
Bavaria					

GERMANY.

of the sea. In the south, Bavaria includes some of the outlying branches of the Alps; on the east, it is divided from Bohemia by the chain of the Böhmer Wald. Besides the main body of the Kingdom, Bavaria comprehends a smaller and detached piece of territory—the Palatinate or Rheinpfalz—to the west of the Rhine. The chief towns of Bavaria are Munich¹ (the capital), Nuremberg, Augsburg, Ratisbon, Bamberg, Würzburg, and Speyer.

MUNICH or MÜNCHEN (348) stands on the river Isar, a considerable affluent of the Danube, in the midst of the plateau-land of South Germany, at an elevation of 1,700 feet above the sea-level; it is noted for its fine collections of painting and sculpture. Augsburg (66), is on the Lech, which also joins the Danube, to the north-west of the Bavarian capital. Nuremberg, or Nürnberg (142), lies in the plain to the north of the Danube, on a small affluent of the Main. Würzburg (55) is on the right bank of the Main. Ratisbon, or Regensburg (36), is on the Danube, opposite the junction of the Regen. Speyer, or Spires, is within the detached portion of Bavarian territory to the west of the Rhine, and on the left bank of that river.

WÜRTEMBERG is immediately to the west of Bavaria. Its northern portion is traversed by the Neckar, an affluent of the Rhine, but its southern districts belong to the basin of the Danube.

The capital, **Stuttgart** (140), lies near the left bank of the Neckar. Ulm is an ancient city on the Danube, close to the Bavarian border, and is strongly fortified.

BADEN² is a long and narrow tract of country, lying on the east bank of the Rhine, and traversed by the range of the Schwarz Wald or Black Forest.

Its capital, Carlsruhe (61), lies a few miles east of the Rhine. Mannheim (61) is at the junction of the Neckar and Rhine. Heidelberg, on the Neckar, is a famous university town.

The Grand Duchy of **HESSE** comprehends two detached portions of territory. The southern portion is crossed by the Rhine, above the junction of the Main; the northern division is to the north of the Main.

The chief cities are Darmstadt (the capital) and Mentz. Darmstadt (43) lies 11 miles east of the Rhine; Mentz (66) (Ger. Mainz, Fr. Mayence), is on the west bank of the Rhine, opposite the junction of the Main, and is strongly fortified.

LUXEMBURG, which has an area of 1,000 square miles, and a population of 213,000, lies between the Rhenish province of Prussia and Belgium.

The Grand Duchy of Luxemburg, to which the Duke of Nassau succeeded the late King of Holland as Grand Duke in 1890, was declared neutral territory by the Treaty of London, in 1867, when the fortifications of its capital, Luxemburg (18), were dismantled. The administration of the territory (which for commercial purposes only is included in the German Zollverein) is personally controlled by the Grand Duke, and its neutrality is guaranteed by the Great Powers.

^{1.} Munich, German, München; from mönche, 1 2. Baden, from the town of the same name. monks. | celebrated for its baths.

LIECHTENSTEIN, the smallest of the German States, adjoins the eastern border of Switzerland, and practically belongs to the Austrian Empire, but has never been formally annexed.

The principality has an area of 60 square miles, and a population of about 9,000, who are in the enviable position of not being liable to conscription. and of having no taxes to pay. Vadus, its capital, is merely a castle.

QUESTIONS ON PRUSSIA AND THE SMALLER STATES OF GERMANY.

Whith a the length, breadth, and area of *Prussis* is the length, breadth, and area of *Prussis* is the population of Prussis amount to ? Which hortions of the kingdom are most density populated?

 Runmarate the mountains and risers that strictly belong to Prussis.
 Runmarate the mountains and risers that strictly belong to Prussis.
 Runmarate the mountains and risers that strictly belong to Prussis.
 Run the portiones, respectively, are Breelan, Statistic provinces contains the greatest number of large towns? Name some of the lasticr.
 Row what are Riberfeld, Cologne, Düssel- dorf, and Dansig respectively distinguished? S. In what portion of the Prussian dominions are Göttingen, Emden, Cassel, Wiesbaden, and Kiel, respectively? S. Describe the condition of Frankforton-the Prince what dist has it been annexed to Prussis! What was its previous condition? 10. Which of the smaller States of North Gremany ranks as a kingdom? Which of them orm granite? Which dustles? Which principative? Which dustles? Which principative? Which dustles? Which principative? Mich dustles? Which principative? Mi

1. How is Prussia bounded? 2. What is the length, breadth, and area of and describe the situation of each. Prussia?

and describe the situation of each. 13. Describe the situation of Alsace-Lorraine, and name the principal towns within the respec-tive portions of the forritory it embraces. 14. In what respect does South Germany differ, as to its natural features, from the northern half of Germany?

15. Name the great river of southern Germany. limits.

16. What States are within South Germany, and what are their respective forms of govern-ment?

17. Name the principal towns of Bavaria, also those of Würtemberg.

18. In what States, respectively, are Würzburg, Ratisbon, Ulm, and Mentz ?

 Describe the situation of the Grand Duchy of Baden, and name its principal towns.
 By what river is the territory of Hessen-Darmatedt traversed? What are its chief towns? 21. Describe the position of Luxemburg, and its administration.

22. Which is the smallest of the German States? Describe its situation.

AUSTRIA-HUNGARY

AUSTRIA-HUNGARY, the great Dual Empire of Central Europe, is. next to Russia, the largest State on the Continent, and is surpassed in point of population only by Russia and Germany.

BOUNDARIES.—Austria-Hungary is bounded on the north by Germany; on the east by Russia and Roumania : on the south by Roumania, Servia, the Adriatic Sea, and Italy; on the west by Switzerland and Bavaria.

The *frontier-line* of the empire is about 4,500 miles long, and is for the most part formed by strongly-marked natural features, but its natural compactness is politically neutralised by the heterogeneous character of its population, which consists of Slavs, Germans, Magyars, and other races.

EXTENT.—The area of Austria¹ proper is 116,000 square miles, and of Hungary 125,039 square miles. Including Bosnia and Herzegovina,² the empire has a total area of 265,000 square miles, about four and a half times the area of England and Wales.

The greatest length, from east to west, is about 800 miles.

The greatest breadth, from north to south, is nearly 500 miles.

^{1.} Austria, Ger. Ocstorreich, eastern kingdom, 2. The minor Principality of Idechtenstein also so called because it formed the eastern portion practically belongs to Austria-Hungary.

COASTS.—The only sea-coast which belongs to Austria is at the head and on the eastern side of the Adriatic, and is about 500 miles in length, *i.e.*, 1 mile of coast to every 500 square miles of area.

1. Capes.—Punta de Promontore, the southern extremity of Istria; and Punta della Planca, on the coast of Dalmatia.

2. Inlets.—Gulfs of Trieste, Quarnero, and Cattaro; the last of which forms by far the best harbour in the Adriatic.

3. Islands.—Numerous small islands along the Adriatic coast, of which the principal are :—Cherso and Veglia, in the Gulf of Quarnero; Pago, Grossa, Brazza, and Lissa, off the coast of Dalmatia.

MOUNTAINS.—Austria-Hungary includes the Bohemian Mountains in the north-west, the eastern portions of the Alps, and the whole of the Carpathian mountain-system, besides several minor ranges. The Alps belong to the Austrian provinces of the empire; the Carpathians to the Hungarian countries.

1. The Bohemian Mountains enclose Bohemia and include the Sudeten Gebirge, Riesen Gebirge, Erz Gebirge, and the Böhmer Wald. The highest point is *Schneekoppe* (5,274 feet), in the Riesen Gebirge.

2. The Austrian Alps include the Rhætian Alps, with Ortier Spitz, 12,852 feet; the Noric Alps, with Gross Glockner, 12,766 feet; the Carnic Alps, with Kellerwand, 9,500 feet; and the Julian Alps, with Terglou, 10,866 feet. The principal passes over the Austrian Alps are the Stelvio Pass (9,177 feet), the loftiest carriage-road in Europe; and the Brenner Pass (4,660 feet), traversed by a carriage-road and railway, the latter opened in 1867.

3. The **Carpathians** extend for 900 miles in a semicircle from the Danube, near Pressburg, to Orsova on the same river. The culminating point is *Mount Pietra*, 8,090 feet above the level of the sea. Elevides the Carpathians proper, there are the Little Carpathians, between the March and Waag; the **Tatra Mount Negoi**, 8,346 feet; and the Dinaric Alps, with *Mount Negoi*, 8,346 feet; and the Dinaric Alps, with *Mount Kom*, 9,000 feet, and *Mount Dinara*, 7,458 feet.

PLAINS.—Between the Carpathians and the eastern spurs of the Alps is the large *Plain of Hungary*. The less extensive *Plain of Bohemia* is in the north-western part of the empire.

BIVERS.—The principal rivers of Austria-Hungary are the *Danube* and its tributaries, and the *Dniester*, flowing into the Black Sea; the *Etsch* or *Adige*, and the *Shobba*, flowing into the Adriatic Sea; the *Oder* and the *Vistula*, flowing into the Baltic; and the *Elbe*, flowing into the North Sea.

1. The **Danube** is the great river of Austria. It flows through the heart of the empire, from west to east; and, with its numerous tributaries, waters more than two-thirds of its whole extent. Of these tributaries the *Inn, March*, *Drase*, *Save*, and *Theiss* are the most considerable. The Danube, although rapid, is navigable throughout Austria for steamers and rafts.

2. The Elbe and the Dniester have their upper portions within Austria-the former in the province of Bohemia, the latter in Galicia.

3. Only a small portion of the upper courses of the **Oder** and **Vistula** are within the empire. The latter forms part of the boundary between the Russian and Austrian territories.

*** The largest strictly Austrian or rather Hungarian river is the **Theiss**, which rises in Mount Galatz, in the Carpathians, and, after a generally navigable course of 843 miles, joins the Danube near Peterwardein. LAKES.—Hungary contains the considerable Lake of Balaton or Platten See (area, 250 square miles), the water of which is slightly salt. The Neusiedler See is sometimes dry in summer. Lake Zirkniz, the waters of which occasionally disappear, is in the Julian Alps; and Lakes Garda and Como are on the south-west frontier.

OLIMATE.—So extensive and varied a range of country as that which falls within the empire naturally exhibits many differences of climate, soil, and vegetation. The warmest portions of the empire are those lying south of the Alps, towards the coasts of the Adriatic. The Plain of Hungary is distinguished by extremes of heat and cold at the opposite seasons of the year. On the whole, the climate of most part of the country is dry, healthy, and temperate.

PRODUCTIONS.—The natural productions of the empire are extremely varied. Every plant indigenous to Europe is found in Hungary alone, and the mineral wealth of the two countries is said to be greater than that of any other European country.

1. The vine thrives in Hungary, and throughout the southern provinces in general. The empire ranks next to France as a *wine-growing* country, yields ing annually about five hundred million gallons. The *fig, olive*, and *mulberry* are found on the shores of the Adriatic.

2. Austria is rich in *metals* and *minerals*. Both *gold* and *silver* are worked in Hungary and Transylvania. In the Austrian provinces there are rich mines of *lead* and *iron*, "brown" and common *coal*, besides the *quicksilver* mine of Idria (in the province of Carniola, above the head of the Adriatic).

INHABITANTS.—The Austro-Hungarian Empire has nearly 42 million inhabitants—a greater population than any other European State, except Russia and Germany—equal to an average of 160 to the square mile, or less than a third of the density in England.

Of these, 233 millions inhabit the Austrian division of the Empire, but less than 10 millions of them are Germans, the remainder consisting of **Czechs** (who form the bulk of the Bohemian population) and other **Slavonic** peoples. Five-and-a-half million Austrian subjects are **Poles**, and nearly half a million speak the **Italian** language. These latter inhabit the southern valleys of the Tyrol.

The remaining 17 millions include the people of Hungary and the adjacent territories, known under the general name of the Hungarian countries. In Hungary itself, the **Magyars**, who now number 8½ millions, form the dominant race; intermixed with them are Slavs, Germans, and Roumanians. One-and-a-half million *Jews* are dispersed throughout the empire. The Hungarian population has risen from 15½ millions in 1880, to 17½ millions in 1891, and the Magyar nationality from 6,170,000 to 8,200,000. The Hungarians amount, therefore, to 54½ per cent. of the entire population, while of the other races settled in Hungary, the most numerous one represents only 15 per cent.

The provinces of Bosnia and the Herzegovina, occupied by Austria in accordance with the Treaty of Berlin, contain about 11 million inhabitants.

INDUSTRIES.—The industrial produce of Austria-Hungary is considerable. There are considerable manufactures, but agriculture is the principal, and in many parts the only, industry.

1. Agriculture occupies by much the larger proportion of the people, especially in Hungary and Galicia, which are the principal corn-growing provinces. Rye is the staple crop, and forms the principal article of food. Large

quantities of *barley* and *oats* are grown in Galicia. Much wins is produced, that of Tokay being specially famed. Vast numbers of sheep and cattle are reared in various parts of the empire.

2. Manufactures are mostly pursued in the German provinces, where linen, woollen, and other fabrics are made. Bohemia is celebrated for its glassworks. Still, the empire is not, on the whole, a manufacturing country, and manufactured goods are therefore largely imported.

3. The foreign Commerce' of the empire is checked by its limited extent of sea-coast and by the mountain-chains which have to be crossed in order to reach the coast from the interior.

Ports.—The ports of *Trieste* and *Fiume* are the chief seats of the foreign trade of the empire—Trieste for the German, and Fiume for the Hungarian, provinces.

INTERNAL COMMUNICATION.—The Danube and its tributaries are the great highways of internal trade. There are excellent *high-roads*, over 14,000 miles of *railway*, and well-developed *telegraphic* and *postal* services.

The Austrian Government has, at great expense, constructed good roads across upwards of sixty passes, that leading from Innsbruck over Monte Stelvio to Lombardy being a magnificent road, arched over in some parts to prevent its being blocked by avalanches. Before the construction of railways through the mountainous region which lies between the interior and the sea-coast, intercommunication was necessarily limited. Now, however, railways extend from Vienna to Prague, &c., on the north; Buda-Pesth, &c., on the east; Munich, &c., on the west; and Trieste on the south, besides another line across the Brenner Pass to Lombardy. Buda-Pesth, the capital of Hungary, has direct communication by rail with the port of Finme, on the Adriatic.

GOVERNMENT.—Austria-Hungary is an hereditary dual monarchy, the Emperor of Austria being also King of Hungary. The government is dual, the Austrian State and the Hungarian Kingdom each having its own Parliament, Ministry, and Administration.

The empire, as a whole, has no nationality. The ruling power is German in the western provinces, and Hungarian in the eastern division; but the majority of the subjects of both the Austrian and the Hungarian States are of races differing in language, habits, and ideas from the dominant people in each of the two great divisions of the empire, whose rule they more or less reluctantly obey. This division of races is a source of political weakness to the empire, and necessitates the maintenance of a powerful army.

The **Revenue** and **Expenditure** for the "common affairs" of the empire amount to about 11 millions storling, of which Austria provides seven-tenths, and Hungary three-tenths. The Revenue and Expenditure of Austria amount to about 45 millions sterling each, while the National Income of Hungary is about 29 millions, and the Expenditure nearly the same. The *common Debt* amounts to 235 millions—that of Austria, 88 millions, and that of Hungary 132 millions.

Military service is compulsory in both Austria and Hungary. The Imperial Army numbers nearly 800,000 on the peace footing, and 1,200,000 in time of

^{1.} The total value of the imports (1899) was | Russia, Italy, France, and Great Britain; the \$33,130,000; and exports, \$51,000,000. Less than | rest being almost entirely with Germany. a third of the trade is carried on with Turkey, |

war.¹ The Navy consists of 160 war vessels (of which 12 are ironclads), manned by upwards of 7,000 men. **Pola** is the chief naval arsenal.

EDUCATION.—Public education throughout the empire was rather backward until recently, and, notwithstanding the efforts of the Government, the great bulk of the agricultural population of the purely Sclavonic provinces are as yet almost entirely illiterate. In the Germanic portions of the empire, the law enforces the education of every child between the ages of six and twelve. Numerous higherclass schools and 11 universities—of the latter, that of Vienna has over 5.000 students, and that of Buda-Pesth, 3.600.

RELIGION.—The Roman Catholic religion is followed by threefourths of the population. Protestants are most numerous in Hungary and Transylvania. Many of the people of the Hungarian countries, however, are members of the Greek Church.

DIVISIONS and TOWNS.—Austria is divided into 14 Provinces, namely, the Arch-Duchies of Lower Austria and Upper Austria; the Duchies of Salzburg, Styria, Carinthia, Carniola, Silesia, and the Bukowina; the Kingdoms of Bohemia, Dalmatia, and Galicia; the Margraviate of Moravia; the Counties of the Tyrol and Vorarlberg, and the County of Görz; the Margraviate of Istria and the City of Trieste (which together form the Coastlands District).

The chief towns in the Austrian Provinces, with their population in thousands, are VIENNA (1,364), in Lower Austria; LINZ (47), in Upper Austria; SALZBUEG (28), in the Duchy of Salzburg; GRATZ (113), in Styria; KLAGENFUER (20), in Carinthia; LAIBACH (31), in Carniola; TROFAU (22), in Silesis; CZERNOWITZ (57), in the Bukowina; PRACUE (184), in Bohemia; ZABA (25), in Dalmatia; LEMBERG (128), in Galicia; BEUNN (95), in Moravia; INNSBRUCK (32), in the Tyrol; and TRIESTE (158), in the Coastlands.

VIENNA, the capital of the Empire, stands on the south bank of the Danube. It is among the largest of European capitals, and is a great centre of trade. Lins, in Upper Austria, is also on the Danube. Gratz, in Styria, is on the river Mur, an affluent of the Drave. Trieste, situated at the head of the Adriatic, is the principal scaport of Austria, and is connected by rail with Vienna and other towns in the interior. Fola, the chief naval station, is on the coast of Istria, near the southern extremity of the peninsula.

PRAGUE, the capital of Bohemia, comes next to Vienna in size and population, and is a place of much note in history. Prague stands on the river Moldau, which joins the Elbe. Königgrätz, which gives its name to the decisive victory gained over the Austrians by Prussia in 1866, lies on the Upper Elbe, sixty miles east by north of Prague. Brünn, in Moravia, is an important manufacturing town. Not far distant from it is Austerlitz, the scene of Napoleon's victory over the Austrians in 1805.

GALICIA lies to the east and north of the Carpathian Mountains, and originally formed part of the independent kingdom of Poland. Lemberg, the capital, is a large city, with considerable trade. Cracow (76), on the

^{1.} A large proportion of the army was for. Prussian principle of universal Hability to milimeriy obtained from the "Military Frontier," tary service has been adopted throughout the but that system has been abolished, and the empire of Austria-Hungary.

Vistula, was formerly the ecclesiastical capital of Poland, and has a magnificent cathedral. Near Cracow are the famous salt mines of Wieliczka. Zara, the chief town in Dalmatia, is on the east coast of the Adriatic, and is a thriving port.

The HUNGARIAN STATE includes Hungary proper, with Transylvania and the town of Fiume, and also the provinces of Croatia and Slavonia. which have separate governments for local affairs.

The chief towns in the Hungarian countries are BUDA-PESTH (506); PRESSEDURG (52); SZEGEDIN (87), in Hungary; KLAUSENBURG (32), in Transylvania; and the port of FIUME (29), on the Adriatic.

BUDA-PESTH, which together form the chief city of Hungary, stand on the opposite banks of the Danube. Pesth (on the east bank) is the larger in size, but Buda is the more ancient. They form together a large city, and Pesth is a great seat of trade. Pressburg, higher up the river, was the ancient capital of Hungary during its period of national independence. Fiume is the chief scaport of the Hungarian countries. It lies at the head of an arm of the Adriatic, to the eastward of the Gulf of Trieste, and is connected by rail with Pesth via Agram.

BOSNIA and HERZEGOVINA were, in 1878, in accordance with the treaty of Berlin, placed under the direct administration of Austria-Hungary, and are now virtually treated as integral parts of the empire.

These provinces comprise the territory lying between Servia on the east and Dalmatia on the west, the river Save forming the northern boundary. They have an area of about 20,000 square miles, and a population of 11 millions. The characteristic features of these provinces are their well-wooded mountains and fertile valleys; those of Bosnia being watered by the river Save and its tributaries, and those of the Herzegovina by the Narenta and its affluents.

The largest town is **Bosna-Seral** or **Serajevo** (26), the capital of Bosnia. **Mostar** (18) is the chief town of the Herzegovina. **Trebinje** and **Travnik** are fortified towns.

: The Sanjak, or district, and town of Novi-Bazar have 15.000 inhabitants. and, although occupied by an Austrian military force, are administered civilly by Turkey.

QUESTIONS ON AUSTRIA-HUNGARY.

1. By what countries is Austria-Hungary bounded? 2. What two mountain systems are (one of them partly, the other wholly) within the limits of the empire? Name the highest points in each.

empire?

empire? 4. Name the chief rivers of Austria-Hungary, and briefly describe their courses. 5. Which portions of the empire are distin-guished by the greater warmth of their climate? Name some of the fruits that belong to these provinces. 6. What descriptions of mineral wealth does the empire contain, and in which of its pro-rivers?

vinces? 7. What races of people are included in the Austro-Hungarian Empire

8. What branches of industry are most charac-teristic of the people? 9. Name the chief ports for the foreign com-merce of the empire. What are the means of

A Name the chief ports for the foreign commerce of the empire. What are the means of internal communication?
 10. What is the form of government, and what the prevailing religion?
 11. Name the provinces of the Austrian division of the empire.
 12. What portions of the empire are included in the kingdom of Hungary?
 13. What ho of the Austrian provinces was formerly a part of Poland, and what is its chief city?
 14. Say what you know of Vienna, Gratz, Frieste, Presue, Brunn, Buda-Pesth, Pressburg Fiume, Zara, Cracow, Bosna-Serai, and Mostar.

DENMARK.

DENMARK¹ is a small country in the north-west of Europe. Denmark Proper consists of the northern portion of a peninsula —Jutland—and an adjacent group of islands—Zealand, Fünen, Laaland, &c.—lying at the entrance of the Baltic Sea, and the outlying island of Bornholm in the Baltic.

BOUNDARIES.—The boundaries of Denmark are—on the north, the Skager Rack; on the east, the Kattegat and the Baltic Sea; on the west, the North Sea; and on the south, Germany.

EXTENT.—The area of Denmark is nearly 14,600 square miles —less than half the area of Scotland, and about one-fourth that of England and Wales. But if we include Iceland and the Farce Islands, the total area is 54,310 square miles.

COASTS.—The coast-line of Denmark is extensive, being nearly 4,000 miles in length, and the position of the country is one favourable to maritime commerce. The three channels of entrance to the Baltic—known as the Sound, and the Great and Little Belts—lie between the Danish islands and the mainland on either side. The Sound is between the island of Zealand and the coast of Sweden. The Great Belt is between the islands of Zealand and Fünen; and the Little Belt between Fünen and the coast of Jutland. Denmark terminates to the north in a point of land, or cape, called the Skaw.

Along the west coast of Jutland and in the Kattegat are numerous shoals and sand-banks. The western coasts, regular and unbroken and containing no harbours, contrast strongly with the eastern coast-line, which is penetrated by numerous inlets, the most important of which, the *Linn Fiord*, extends across the entire breadth of the peninsula from the Kattegat to the North Sea.

ISLANDS.—A third of Denmark consists of islands, of which Zealand (2,600 square miles), Fünen (1,250), Laaland (462), Bornholm (221), and Falster (178), are the largest.

NATURAL FEATURES.—Denmark is a flat country, often marshy towards the coasts, which in some places require to be protected by dykes, as in Holland. No part of Jutland reaches an elevation of more than 600 feet above the sea-level.

Denmark has no rivers of any large size, though small streams are numerous. The principal are the Guden and Veile, which flow into the Kattegat, and the Skive, which falls into the Liim Fiord, all of which are less than 50 miles in length. There are numerous *lakes*, but none of any considerable size. Denmark is generally level and monotonous, but there are several remarkably beautiful and well-wooded tracts, especially in the islands.

CLIMATE.—The climate of Denmark is somewhat colder and moister than that of Britain, but it is, on the whole, temperate

^{1.} Denmark, Dame-March, the march or fron- Holstein, formerly attached to the Danish tier of the Danes. The Duchies of Schleswig and crown, were severed from Denmark in 1864.

and healthy. The winters are severe, and occasionally the channels between the islands are frozen over.

PRODUCTIONS.—The chief sources of national wealth are found in the rich pastures, and in the fisheries carried on in the adjacent seas. There are few wild animals, and no minerals, except limited quantities of coal, marble, and building-stone in the island of Bornholm. Turf is generally used for fuel.

INHABITANTS.—The Danes belong to the Scandinavian family of nations, and in 1890 numbered 2,172,000, an average of 147 per square mile, less than a third of that of England. The Farce Islands, Iceland. and Greenland have a total population of about 90,000.

Education is compulsory and widely diffused by means of primary and secondary schools under the control of the government. There is one univer-sity (at Copenhagen) and several public colleges in the larger towns. The established religion is the Lutheran, to which 99 per cent. of the people

belong, but all sects are tolerated.

INDUSTRIES.—The industry of Denmark is chiefly devoted to the soil, and the rearing of cattle, with the culture of the land, employ the greater number of the people. Oxen, with butter and cheese, and other farm and dairy produce, are largely supplied to other countries, and a considerable amount of maritime commerce is thus carried on. The Danes are good sailors, and have always been noted for their devotion to maritime pursuits.

The imports from the United Kingdom to Denmark and the Danish Colonies amount to nearly 3 millions sterling a year, and the exports thereto to nearly 8 millions. COPENHAGEN is the principal port.

Internal communication is facilitated by excellent roads (especially in the lands), about 1,250 miles of railways and several canals. The Lim Fiord, islands), about 1,250 miles of railways and several canals. which extends across the country from the Kattegat to the North Sea, throws off several arms, which furnish extensive means of internal communication. The natural channel (formed during the storm of Feb. 8, 1825) connecting the fiord and the sea having become closed with sand, the Thyboron Canal was cut, but it can only be used by very small vessels.

GOVERNMENT. - Denmark forms a hereditary and constitutional monarchy.

The Executive power is vested in the King, who has also an absolute right of veto on measures passed by the Danish Parliament (the Rigsdag), which is composed of two Chambers-the Landsthing and the Folksthing.

The **Revenue** and **Expenditure** each amounts to a little over 3 millions sterling. The National Debt, much of which has been incurred in the construction of the State railways, harbours, and other public works, has been reduced to less than 10 millions sterling. There is a **Reserve Fund** of about 41 millions sterling.

The total peace strength of the army is about 16,500 men, and the war strength about 60,000, exclusive of the extra **Reserve** of about 14,000 officers and men. The navy consists of 30 war vessels, of which 10 are armour-clad ships, manned by about 1,500 men.

DIVISIONS.—Denmark is divided into 7 Stifts, 3 of which are on the islands, and 4 in Jutland.

The 8 Stifts on the islands are (1) Zealand, which includes the islands of Zealand, Amager, Möen and Samsö; (2) Fünen, which includes the islands of Fünen, Langeland and Arrö; (3) Laaland, which consists of the islands of Laaland and Falster. The 4 Stifts in Jutland are (1) Aalborg, (2) Viborg, (3) Aarhuus, (4) Ribe.

The island of BORNHOLM, which lies in the Baltic, considerably east of the other islands, belongs to Denmark.

TOWNS.-Less than one-third of the Danish people live in the towns, the most populous of which are Copenhagen, the capital, Aarhuus, Odense, and Aalborg.

COPENHAGEN¹ (312, or with suburbs 375), the capital of Denmark, is on the east coast of Zealand. It has extensive docks and great trade, and is strongly fortified.

Elsinore lies about twenty miles north of Copenhagen, at the northern entrance of the Sound. Roeskilde, an ancient town, the former residence of the Danish Kings, is to the west of the present capital.

None of the towns of Jutland are of very considerable size. Aalborg (20) is on the east shore of the Liim Fiord ; Aarhuus (33), on the east coast, is the centre of the railway system of the peninsula.

Odense (30) is the chief town in the island of Fünen. Rönne is the capital of Bornholm.

FOREIGN POSSESSIONS.—Besides Iceland and the Faroe Islands, Denmark has some settlements on the west coast of Greenland (North America), with the islands of Santa Cruz, St. Thomas, and St. John, in the West Indies.

1. The FAROE ISLANDS," in the Atlantic Ocean, to the north of the British islands, comprise a group of 35 islands (of which only 17 are inhabited), which rise above the waters of a stormy sea. They have an area of 340 square miles, and over 13,000 inhabitants, of Scandinavian origin, who are chiefly occupied in fishing, or in collecting the feathers and down of the numerous birds which find shelter amidst their cliffs. They contain the small town of Thorshavn.

2. ICELAND has an estimated area of 40,000 square miles, and is, therefore, next to Great Britain, the largest of European islands. Its northern coasts just touch the borders of the frigid zone. The climate is cold, and the surface generally barren—exhibiting a succession of volcanic mount-ains and plains covered with lava. Several of the volcances' are in occasional eruption—amongst them Mount Hekla, which is upwards of 5.000 feet high.

Mano. 8. A volcano is a burning mountain—that is, a mountain from which burning matter (as red-hot ashes, stones, and lava) is occasionally thrown forth. The mountain is at such times said to be

^{1.} Copenhagen, or Kjöbenhavn, merchant's in aruption. Of the substances thrown out by haven. The harbour is formed by the channel volcances, lava is the most curious. It is a between Copenhagen proper and Christians in unbetance, rendered liquid by the in-harn on the adjacent island of Amager. I can be the substance of a volcance generally has a depression, a mountain from which burning matter (as red. a curious of a volcance generally has a depression, a mountain from which burning matter (as red. a curious of the substance). a cup).

The most remarkable feature of Iceland, however, consists in its boiling springs or *geysers*, which are in the south-west corner of the island, near Mount Hekla. The geysers are fountains which at intervals throw up columns of hot water and spray. The largest of them-called the Great Geyser-throws up a column of water to the height of from 50 to 150 feet.

Iceland has over 72,000 inhabitants, who are chiefly employed in rearing cattle and other farm labours. The capital, and indeed only town, is Reikia vik (2), on the south-west coast.

QUESTIONS ON DENMARK.

1. How is Denmark bounded? What is its

How is Denmark bounded? What is its extent?
 What cape forms the northermost point of Denmark? What wo channels does it adjoin?
 What portions of land do the straite called the Bound, the Great Belt, and the Little Belt respectively divide?
 Description briefly the natural features and climate of Denmark?.
 What are the principal productions?
 What are the principal productions?
 Under what form of government is Denmark? In what state is education, and what is the established religion?

8. Name the five political divisions of Den-mark, and the chief towns in each. 9. On what island is the capital of Denmark situated? What strait does it adjoin? 10. What do you know of Elisinore, Aalborg, and Aarhnus? 11. What foreign possessions belong to Den-

11. What foreign possessions belong to Den-mark? 12. Where are the Farce Islands? What town do they contain? 13. Where is localand? What kind of natural features does it exhibit? 14. What are the geners, and where are they situated? 13. Name and point out the capital of Ice-land.

SWEDEN AND NORWAY.

SWEDEN¹ AND NORWAY,³ which are distinct (though adjoining) countries, are under the same sovereign, and form the kingdom of Sweden and Norway. These two countries form a large peninsula, situated in the north-west of Europe, between the Atlantic Ocean and the Baltic Sea. Sweden is the eastern part of the peninsula; Norway its western side. Sweden and Norway are together known as Scandinavia.

BOUNDARIES.—The boundaries of Sweden and Norway are on the north, the Arctic Ocean; on the west, the Atlantic; on the south, the Skager Rack, the Kattegat, and the Baltic; on the east, the Baltic Sea, the Gulf of Bothnia, and part of Russia.

EXTENT.-In size, Sweden and Norway are little short of 300,000 square miles, or considerably more than five times the area of England and Wales.

The actual area of Sweden is estimated at 170,000 square miles, and that of Norway at 123,000 square miles, giving a total of 293,000 square miles. The greatest length is about 1,150 miles, and the greatest breadth 450 miles. The mean breadth of Sweden is about 250 miles. Norway has an average breadth of 200 miles in the south, but only 65 miles in the centre and north.

COASTS.-The coasts of both Sweden and Norway are very indented and irregular, those of Norway even more so than is the case with the Swedish shores. The numerous long and narrow arms of the sea which penetrate the coast of Norway are called *fiords.**

L	Sweden, or	r Svea I	lige,	Swedes kingdom.	resemble		
2	Norway, o	T Nor R	tice.	Sweder kingdom. northern kingdom.	land, Th	ae te	m

1. Sweden, or Sues Rige, Sweder' kingdom. 2. Horway, or Nor Rige, northern kingdom. 3. The term Mord is peculiar to Scandinavian arms of the sees, ico, on the other hand, is given geography. The flords of the Norwegian coast to inland lakes as well as to arms of the see.

Many of the fiords are of great extent, running, in some cases, more than a hundred miles inland. They are bordered on either side by steep and lofty rocks. The total length of the *coast-line* is estimated at 3,400 miles, or 1 mile of coast to every 86 square miles of *area*. The principal features are:—

1. Capes.—The North Cape (1,200 feet high), on the island of Mageroe, is the most northerly headland of Norway, and also of Europe. Cape Nordkyn is the most northerly point of the mainland of Europe; and Cape Falsterbo forms the south-west extremity of Sweden. The Naze is the southernmost point of Norway.

2. Inlets.—Of the *fords* of Norway, the principal are Varanger Fiord, on the north; Trondheim and Sogne Fiords, on the west; and Christiania Fiord, on the south. Between the south-west coast of Sweden and the island of Zealand is the narrow strait called the Sound.

ISLANDS.—The Lofoten, Vigten,¹ and other numerous groups of islands off the west coast of Norway; the islands of Gothland and Oland, in the Baltic Sea, to the east of Sweden.

Between the two southernmost of the Lofoten Islands is the famous whirlpool of the *Miliström*, which, however, may be safely crossed in boats, except during severe storms. All the Norwegian islands are generally high and rocky, while those of Sweden are for the most part level and arable.

SURFACE.—Norway is a mountainous country, with a very elevated and irregular surface. Sweden is much less elevated, and consists for the most part of extensive plains, with a gradual slope towards the Baltic. The whole of Norway is one vast mountainregion, which rises steeply out of the Atlantic Ocean. The waters of the ocean penetrate the mountain wall, advancing far inland, and thereby forming the *fords* already mentioned. The whole of the mountain ranges of Norway and Sweden are frequently referred to under the general name of the Scandinavian Alps, and are locally distinguished, from north to south, as the Kiolen Mountains (highest point, Sulitelma, 6,152 feet); Dovrefield,^{*} (Snechætten, 7,600 feet); Ymesfield (Galdhöppigen, 8,546 feet, the highest mountain in Scandinavia); Sognefield (Skagstlöstind, 8,100 feet); Hardangerfield (Jöklem, 6,533 feet); and Gaustafield (Gausta, 6,174 feet.)

RIVERS.—Both Sweden and Norway have a vast number of rivers—many of them mountain-torrents, but others expand into considerable streams. Owing to the proximity of the great mountain ranges to the western coasts, those which flow into the Atlantic are short and rapid, while those which drain the eastern slope and flow into the Baltic are longer, but are frequently interrupted by falls and rapids. Except in the south of Sweden, none of the Scandinavian rivers are navigable, but they are, nevertheless, made use of to float the timber, cut in the inland forest regions, to the seaboard.

The two principal rivers of Sweden are the Dal and the Göta. The Dal flows into the Gulf of Bothnia; the Göta into the Kattegat. The largest

^{1.} Rolf or Rollo, the ancestor of William the 2 Field, or field, a range of mountains. Conqueror, came from the Vigten Islands.

river of Norway is the Glommen, 1 400 miles long, which flows into Christiania Fiord, at the head of the Skager Rack.

Other less important rivers are the Tana and the Alten, flowing into the Arctic Ocean ; the Sundals and the Romsdal, flowing into the Allastic ; the Maan and the Drammen, flowing into the Skager Rack ; the Tornea, Lulea, Pitea, and Umea, flowing into the Gulf of Bothnia.

Waterfalls are numerous and most picturesque. The most noted are the Niukan Foss (2,000 feet), on the river Maan, one of the finest in Europe; Mörk Foss (1,040 feet), one of the loftiest fails in Europe; the Vöring Foss (800 feet); and the Trolhatta, on the Göta.

LAKES.—Lakes are numerous in both countries. The largest in Sweden are Wener (area, 2,136 square miles), the third largest lake in Europe, Wetter (840 square miles), and Mäelar (700 square miles). The largest in Norway is Lake Miösen (300 square miles).

In Norway alone the lakes are estimated to number 30,000, while in Sweden they cover nearly a tenth part of the total area of the country. All the great lakes form an excellent means of inland communication, which is greatly extended by means of canals. Thus there is through communication between Göteborg on the Kattegat and Soderköpping on the Baltic by means of the river Göta, the Trolhatta Canal, Lake Wener, the Göta Canal, and Lake Wetter.

CLIMATE.-Sweden and Norway have a climate which is considerably colder than that of England, owing to their higher latitude. But the air in both countries is generally dry and healthy, and the winters, though long, are less severe than in similar latitudes else-where. This is especially the case with Norway. The winter is seven or eight months long in the north, but the summer, though short, is, especially on the western coast districts of Norway, very hot and dry. More rain falls in Norway than in Sweden, but the climate is on the whole salubrious.³

PRODUCTIONS.—The most valuable among the natural productions of Scandinavia are found in its mines, its forests, and its fisheries. Copper and iron are abundant in both countries. The extensive forests furnish an inexhaustible supply of timber (chiefly pine, or wood properly known as deal), which is largely exported to other nations. The *fisheries* among the Lofoten Islands and upon the Baltic coasts are an important source of national wealth.

Among the wild animals are the bear, wolf, fox, lynx, and lemming, while the most remarkable domestic animal is the reindeer. Among the wild birds are the eagle, hawk, ptarmigan, and eider duck.

INHABITANTS.—Sweden and Norway are thinly-peopled countries-necessarily so, from the vast extent of their mountains and forests, and the severity of the climate towards their northern

^{1.} The Glommen waters the Gudbransdal, the kongest of the Norwegian valleys. This valley is 150 miles long, but nowhere more than 7 miles

¹⁰⁰ mines hold, out investo and a mine brad. 2. Foes, waterfall. 3. The mean annual rais/all on the west coast of Norway is 73 inches, but as Upsala, in Sweden, only 16 inches. Bergen is one of the wettest

places in Europe, the mean rainfall being 82 inches, or nearly four times that of Paris, and more than five times that of 8k Petersburg. 4. A species of field-rat which occasionally appears in Norway in vast swarms, and which are almost as desiructive to the crops as the locusts of tropical lands.

limita. Norway, which consists almost wholly of mountains, is the least populous among the countries of Europe. It is only the shores of the *fords* that are capable of habitation, and it is in such localities that the few towns are uniformly situated.¹

The population of Sweden numbers upwards of 42 millions, and that of Norway nearly 2 millions. The average density in Norway is only 14, and in Sweden but 23 persons per square mile. The people are, with the exception of a few Laplanders and Finns, of the *Toutonic race*, and both the Norse and Swedish tongues are mere dialects of essentially the same language.

INDUSTRIES.—It is only in the south of Sweden that agriculture is much pursued. But the people of both countries are expert seamen, and a great deal of maritime commerce is carried on.

Iron and copper, timber, and the produce (dried and salted, for consumption by other nations) of the fisheries, give the industrious Swedes and Norwegians a place in the general markets of the world. They export these things in return for the luxuries and various native produce of other lands.

In Norway, fishing (chiefly for cod and herring) is the principal industry, but in Sweden, about half the people depend upon agriculture for their support, about 230,000 being owners of the land they cultivate.

The extreme north of Sweden and Norway is inhabited by the Laplanders, a people of pastoral habits, whose sole wealth consists in their herds of reindeer.

The total imports of Sweden amount to about 18 millions sterling a year, and the exports to 151 millions. The imports of Norway amount to 101 millions, and the exports to 71 millions.²

The principal Ports are STOCKHOLM, GOTHENBUBG or GÖTEBORG, MALMÖ, CARLECBONA, and NORREGPING, in Sweden ; CHRISTIANIA, BERGEN, DRAM-MEN, and TRONDHEIM, in Norway.

There are few good roads in either country in comparison to their extent. but nearly 6,000 miles of railways (5,000 miles in Sweden, and 1,000 miles in Norway) are open for traffic, and numerous steamboats ply on the navigable rivers and lakes and along the coast.

The Göta Canal, in Sweden, completes the partly natural water-communication between the North Sea and the Baltic by the River Göta and Lakes Wener and Wetter. To avoid the *Falls of Trolhatta* an artificial channel, nearly a mile long, has been cut in the solid rock.

GOVERNMENT.—Sweden and Norway are two absolutely in-dependent kingdoms under the same sovereign.³ The Legislative Assembly, or Storthing, of Norway has, however, greater power than the Parliament, or *Diet*, of Sweden.

The annual Revenue of Sweden amounts to about 5 millions sterling, and that of Norway to about 21 millions. The Expenditure of each country is about the same as the Revenue. The Public Debt of Sweden, contracted entirely for railways, amounts to 141 millions, and that of Norway to 61 millions, incurred chiefly in the construction of railways.

part of the Danish kingdom, but by the Treaty of Kiel (Jannary 14, 1814) the Danish king ceded Norway to the King of Sweden. The Norwegians, however, would not ratify this arrangement, and elected Prince Frederick of Denmark as their king. The prompt entry of Swedish troops, and the refunal of the European powers to acknow-ledge the newly-elected king, forced the Nor-wegians to conclude a convention with Sweden, by which the crowns of the two kingdoms were united-Norway still retaining a separate govern-ment, constitution, and code of laws.

^{1.} It was from the black and rocky coasts of Norway that the terrible Vikings came, who for centuries desolated the maritime countries of western Europe. 2. The annual trade of Sweden and Norway with the United Kingdom amounts to about 18 millions sterling—the imports from Sweden (principally seed and simber, better, iros, and steal) amounting to 7 millions, and the exports thereto to Smillions, while our imports from Nor-way (chiefly simber, Sak, and teel amount to 8 millions, and our exports to about 22 millions a. Previous to the year 1814, Norway formed

The Norwegian Army numbers about 40,000 men, and that of Sweden, including the *militia* and *volunteers*, upwards of 350,000 men. The united Navy consists of 370 vessels, manned by 7,000 men.

Education.—Education is free and compulsory, all children between seven and fourteen being bound to attend at the public schools. Public education is especially well advanced in Sweden.¹ There are excellent superior schools and colleges in most of the towns, and also three universities—those of Upsala and Lund in Sweden, and that of Christiania in Norway.

Religion.—In religion, the people of both countries, with the exception of about 24,000 Dissenters, are *Lutherans*, or members of the Reformed Protestant Church.

COLONIES.—Sweden has had no colonies since the island of St. Bartholomew, in the West Indies, was sold to France.

DIVISIONS and TOWNS.—Sweden embraces three great divisions, called Sweden Proper, Gothland, and Nordland. These are further divided into 24 governments or *Löns.* Norway also forms three great divisions—Sondenfields, Nordenfields, and Nordlandens, which are subdivided into 20 Provinces or *Amts.* The principal towns in each division are shown in the following table :—

IN SV	VEDEN.	IN NORWAY.		
Divisions.	Towns.	Divisions.	Towns.	
Sweden Proper, Gothland , . Nordland, .	Stockholm, Upsala Göteborg, Carls- crona, Malmö. Sundsval.	Sondenfields, . Nordenfields, . Nordlandens, .	Christiania. Bergen, Tron- dheim. Tromsö, Ham- merfest.	

STOCKHOLM² (246) is the capital of Sweden, and the seat of general government for the two countries. It occupies a highlypicturesque situation at the entrance of the Lake Mäelar, near the coast of the Baltic.

Upsala (22), one of the most ancient of Swedish cities and the seat of a famous university, is to the north-west of the capital. Carlsorona (21), on the south coast, is the naval arsenal of the kingdom. Göteborg or Gottenburg (105), at the outlet of the river Göta into the Kattegat, is the second city in Sweden in population and commercial importance.

CHRISTIANIA⁵ (150), the capital of Norway, lies at the head of a long fiord called by its name, and has an important university founded by the Danish Government in 1811.

Bergen (54), on the west coast, is the second place in point of size, and is a great station for the Norwegian fisheries. Trondheim (25), further to

^{1.} Among the recruits of 1888, only 0'1 per cent. were totally uneducated, and only 1'7 per cent. 2. Stockholm, "the isle of piles." Stockholm its name. (Christiania, founded by Christian IV., hence

the northward, is an ancient city, the former capital of the country. Tromsö (6) is the most important of the northern ports. Hammerfest, only a short way from the North Cape, possesses the distinction of being the most northerly town in Europe.

QUESTIONS ON SWEDEN AND NORWAY.

1. In what part of Europe are Sweden and Norway situated? Give their boundaries and

Norway Business, the extent 2. By what are the coasts of Norway distin-guished? 3. What are the extreme north and south points of Norway? 4. What islands belong to Norway and data

Sweden? Interest biology to how any and a Compare briefly the two countries as to their relief or surface. 6. Name the principal sections of the Scan-dinavian Alps, and give the elevation of their culminating points. 7. Name the principal rivers of Sweden and Norway, with the sease into which they flow. 8. Montion the principal lakes of Sweden and Norway. What is the length of the winter in the north of Norway?

10. What natural productions of value do Sweden and Norway posses? 11. State what you know of the inhabitants of Sweden and Norway. 12. What are the chief industrial pursuits of the Norwegians and Swede? 13. In what does their commerce chiefly con-

In what does their commerce chiefly consist?
 What is a marked feature in the internal communication in the south of Sweden?
 What is the form of government, and what the national religion, in Sweden and Norway?
 Name the three divisions of Sweden, with the principal towns of each.
 What city forms the capital of Sweden, and how is it situated?
 Respectively the constant of the chief city of Nor-

In now is it situated? 18. Point on the map to the chief city of Nor-way, At the head of what inlet does it stand? 10. Where are the following places:-Ussla, Carlserona, Göteborg, Bergen, Trondheim, Trom-80, and Hammerfest?

RUSSIA.

RUSSIA is a country of eastern Europe. It is of vast extent, embracing more than half the European continent.

BOUNDARIES.—Russia is bounded on the north by the Arctic Ocean: on the west by the Baltic Sea, Prussia, and Austria; on the south by Roumania, the Black and Caspian Seas, and Caucasia; on the east by Siberia and Russian Central Asia.

EXTENT.-In size, Russia includes upwards of 2,000,000 square miles-more than 35 times the area of England and Wales. In distance from north to south it measures upwards of 2.300 miles. and about 1,800 miles in the direction of east and west.

The Russian Empire has never been actually surveyed, but its area is officially estimated at 8,644,100 square miles, of which 2,095,504 square miles are in Europe.

COASTS.—Russia possesses a coast-line upon four inland seas, the Baltic, Black, Caspian, and White Seas, besides part of the shores of the Arctic Ocean. The high latitude (and consequently cold climate) of the White Sea and adjoining ocean limits their navigation to a short period of each year, during which alone they are free from ice. The same thing is the case, during some months annually, with the Baltic Sea.¹ Both the Baltic and the Black Seas are nearly landenclosed, only communicating with the ocean by narrow straits,

^{1.} The Baltic coasts are covered with ice for | coasts are similarly closed for about eight or about five months in the year, and the Arctic | nine months.

which are in the keeping of other nations. The Caspian is merely a vast lake, without an outlet.

The peninsula of the Crimea indents the shores of the Black Sea, and is connected with the mainland by the Isthmus of Perekop. The Sea of Azov (13,000 square miles) is an arm of the Black Sea, from which it is entered through the Strait of Kertch or Yenikale. The *Gulf of Finland* is an arm of the Baltic, and is 260 miles long, and from 25 to 90 miles broad.

The total length of coast-line is estimated at 5,500 miles,² of which 2,500 miles belong to the Arctic Ocean, and 1,000 to the Baltic.

ISLANDS.—Vaigats, Nova Zembla,^{*} and Spitzbergen,^{*} in the Arctic Ocean; Aland, Dago, and *Œsel*, in the Baltic; and several small islands in the Caspian Sea.

None of the islands of the Arctic Ocean are permnnently inhabited, except Vaigatz, which is occupied by a few Samoyedes, but they are nevertheless valuable as hunting and fishing stations. The Nova Zembla group lies north of Vaigatz, from which it is separated by the Strait of Kara. A remarkably deep inlet, called the Matyushin Shar, extends right across the main island. Spitzbergen is the name of a group of islands in the Arctic Ocean, between 76° and 81° N. lat., and 11° and 23° E. long., all of which are more or less mountainous, and for the most part covered with enormous glaziers and enowdrifts. Both Spitzbergen and Nova Zembla have acquired additional interest in connection with the expeditions to the Polar Seas-the latter more especially in connection with the discovery of the North-East Passage by Professor Nordenskiöld. The Aland Islands are important from their position near the entrance of the Gulfs of Bothnia and Finland, but the principal fortress, Bomarsund, was destroyed by the combined English and French fleets in 1854.

SURFACE.—Russia exhibits a succession of immense and nearly level plains, which slope gradually towards the Baltic, Black, Caspian, and White Seas. The most perfectly level of these plains are in the south-easterly division of the country, where they are called *Steppes*. The steppe is an open plain, without trees, and generally without any perennial streams. Its surface, during the dry season of the year (the period of summer and autumn), is parched, arid, and often sandy, the vegetation burned up by the intense heat; but at other times it exhibits a luxuriant expanse of grass, on which the inhabitants pasture immense herds of horses and cattle. The lowest portions of the steppe-land are towards the Caspian Sea, where the soil is often impregnated with saline particles, and saltwater lakes are of frequent occurrence.

MOUNTAINS.—The only mountains belonging to European Russia are the Urals on the eastern, and the Caucasus on part of the southern, border-line, and the Valdai Hills in the centre.

1. The Ural Mountains extend for 1,200 miles, from the shores of the Sea of Kara on the north, to the river Ural, near Orenburg, on the south. The main chain is flanked on either side by parallel minor ranges, which are less numerous and closer together in the north than in the south, where the

1. Or 1 mile of coast to every 450 square miles	assert that the archipelage of Spitsbergen was
of area.	assert that the archipelago of Spitzbergen was discovered by Sir Hugh Willoughby in 1833, others say that Barents discovered it in 1896.
2. Sove semicia, new inni.	others say that Barents discovered it in 1996.

entire width is upwards of 100 miles. The average height is between 2,000 and 2,500 feet, but the highest point, *Töll Poss*, attains an elevation of 5,540 feet.

2. The chain of the Cancasus (700 miles long), between the Black Sea and the Caspian, has an average elevation of from 8,000 to 9,000 feet, and culminates in *Mount Elburs* (18,571). The height of the *snow-line* varies from 9,600 to 12,000 feet, while the limit of vegetation is about 9,000 feet. Of the few passes the principal is that of Dariel, on the eastern side of Mount Kasbek.

8. The Valdal Hills, although their mean height does not exceed 1,000 fest, are yet important as forming the great water-parting of Russia. They contain the sources of the Dwina and Volga. The Volga rises at a point only 688 fest above the level of the Caspian Sea, into which it flows.

BIVERS.—The rivers of Russia are naturally divisible into four sections, according to the maritime basins they belong to. From the central watershed the country slopes north towards the Arctic Ocean, west towards the Baltic, south towards the Black Sea and Sea of Azov, and south-east towards the Caspian.

The following are the principal rivers :--

(1.) Flowing into the Baltic Sea, the Neva, Southern Dwina, Niemen, and Vistula.

(2.) Flowing into the Black Sea, the Dniester, Dnieper, and Kuban.

(3.) Flowing into the Sea of Azov, the Don.

(4.) Flowing into the Caspian Sea, the Volga and the Ural.

(5.) Flowing into the White Sea, the Northern Dwina and the Onega.

(6.) Flowing into the Arctic Ocean, the Petchora.

1. The Neva (40 miles long) has St. Petersburg, the capital of the Russian Empire, at its mouth, and is the outlet for the great lakes. It is connected by *canals* with the Volga, and is frozen over for five months of the year.

2. The Southern Dwina and the Niemen have each a navigable course of about 500 miles. Part of the lower course of the Niemen is in Prussia.

3. Only the "middle" course of the Vistula is within Russia.

4. The **Dniester** (700 miles) and **Dnieper** (1,200 miles) are navigable throughout the greater part of their courses.

5. The Don (1,100 miles) is navigable during only a part of the year.

6. The Volga (2,200 miles) is the longest of European rivers.¹ It rises in the Valdai Hills, and enters the Caspian by numerous mouths, draining with its tributaries (the Oka, Kama, Moskva, &c.) nearly a seventh of Europe. During the winter it is frozen over, but in summer it is extensively navigated. The Volga is connected by canals with the Dwina, Neva, &c.

7. The Ural (which forms one of the natural boundaries between Europe and Asia) has a course of 1,150 miles, and is navigable for small vessels.

8. The Fetchora (900 miles), which rises in the Ural Mountains, is the only large European river that falls *directly* into the Arctic Ocean.

9. The Northern Dwina has a navigable course of upwards of 700 miles, and is connected by canals with the Neva and the Volga. At its mouth is the port of Archangel.

LAKES.—The two largest are Ladoga and Onega; next are Saima, Peipus, Enara, Bieloe, and Ilmen. All of these are in the north-western part of the country, most of them situated near the Baltic Sea. There are some shallow salt-water lakes in the Steppes —the largest of them is Lake Elton, situated east of the Volga.

¹ The Volga is thus ten times longer than the times longer than the Shannon-the longest Thames, and rather more than nine and a half river in the British Islands.

RUSSIA.

Lake Ladoga (6,330 square miles) is the largest lake in Europe. It is drained by the Neva, and connected with Lake Onega (3,230 square miles) by the Svir. Both are shallow, and their navigation is further impeded by rocks and quicksands. Lake Feipus (or *Tchouds Kof*) has an area of 1,250 square miles, and is drained by the Narva. Lake Saima is extremely irregular, and is by far the largest sheet of water in Finland, its area being probably 2,000 square miles. Elton is the saltest lake in Europe, and yields yearly above 100,000 tons of salt.

CLIMATE.—Russia has great variety of climate, owing to its extensive range of latitude.¹ Its northern part is cold compared with the climate of England, but towards the south it becomes warmer. The Russian winters are very long and severe, while the summers are intensely hot. These extremes of heat and cold are experienced throughout Russia, but more so within the steppe-region than elsewhere.

The severity of Russian winters may be inferred from the fact that most of the rivers are for several months covered with ice of great thickness. The White Sea in the north is always, and the Sea of Azov in the south occasionally, frozen over in winter.

PRODUCTIONS.—The forests, which still cover more than onethird of Russia, furnish some of its most valuable productions *timber, tar, pitch, turpentine,* and *potash*. Its mines of *iron* and *platinum*, within the district of the Ural, are also of high value. *Copper, salt, marble, coal,* and *gold* are also found.

The reindeer and polar bear are found in the north, the common bear, wolf, &c., in the large forests. Vast numbers of fur-bearing animals (beaver, sable, fox, ermine) are caught. Seals are obtained from the Arctic and Caspian Seas. The sturgeon is found in all the larger rivers.

INHABITANTS.—Russia is very thinly peopled, considering its vast size, though the total number of its population is large. Including Finland and Poland, this vast country contains nearly 96 millions of people, an average of only 48 to the square mile, or less than a tenth of the density in England.

Bace.—More than five-sixths of the entire population belong to the *Slavonic* race, but in the north there are three millions of Finns, Lapps, and Samoyedes, and in the south-east nearly the same number of Tartars. Jews are numerous, especially in the western and south-western provinces, but vast numbers of them have been driven out by the harsh and severe measures put in force against them in 1891.

Language.—The majority of the people speak the Russian language, of which there are three principal dialects—pure Russian being spoken only in the central provinces. Polish, Lettish, and the various Finno-Tartar languages are also spoken.

INDUSTRIES.—The vast majority of the people are engaged in *agriculture*, for Russia is principally a corn-growing country. The central and southern portions of its great plains, with the exception of the steppe-region, are annually covered with crops of the finest wheat. Rye and other grains, and also hemp and flax, are very largely grown. Vast numbers of cattle are reared on the Steppes.

The metal-works carried on within the valleys of the Ural display a high degree of manufacturing skill. But Russia is not, upon the whole, a manu-

facturing country. It has a great deal of foreign commerce, arparting corn, hemp, tallow, hides, and bristles; with timber, potash, and other productions of its vast forests.

The annual value of the *imports* is about 38 millions sterling, and of the *exports* 70 millions. Much of the inland trade is carried on at fairs. At the annual fair of Nijni Novgorod goods to the value of about eight millions sterling are sold. The commercial navy of Russia consists of nearly 5,000 vessels. About half the foreign trade of the empire is centred at St. Petersburg, and is mainly carried on with Great Britain and Germany.

Ports.-The chief ports are St. Petersburg, Riga, and Revel, on the Baltic: Archangel, on the White Sea: Astrakhan, on the Volga; and Odessa, on the Black Sea.

Internal Communication. - Excellent highroads, but few good cross-roads; extensive inland water-communication by navigable rivers and canals : and nearly 19.000 miles of railway.

The rivers of Russia intersect the country in every direction, and are con-nected together by an extensive network of canals. Thus goods from St. Petersburg are rapidly and easily conveyed by water to Archangel or Astrakhan, or to the Black Sea ports, and vice versa. In winter the frozen rivers and lakes are admirably adapted for sleigh-travelling.

GOVERNMENT.—Russia is an absolute monarchy, the sovereign bearing the title of Caar or Emperor. An immense standing army is maintained in Russia, and everything is regulated according to the rules of military discipline.1

The annual Revenue of the empire is about 90 millions sterling, and there was a surplus over *Expenditure* in 1889 of about 6 millions sterling." The entire *Public Debt* amounts to about 740 millions sterling, on which there is an annual charge of over 40 millions.

Military service is compulsory for all men from their 21st year. The regular Army and Reserves number 800,000 men on the peace footing, and over 2 millions on the war footing, exclusive of the irregular troops, mainly composed of Don Cossacks. The Navy consists of 270 vessels, of which 44 are *ironclads* and 140 torpedo-boats.

Education.--Very backward, except in Finland, where education is all but universal. In Russia proper, only 20 per cent. of the recruits for the army can read and write. There are numerous military, naval, and mining schools, endowed by Government, and six universities—viz., at Dorpat, Moscow, Petersburg, Kazan, Kiev, and Kharkov.

Religion.—In religion, the majority of the people of Russia are fol-lowers of the *Greek Church*. There are 9 million Roman Catholics, 5 million Protestants, 31 million Jews, and 21 million Mohammedans.

DIVISIONS and TOWNS.-Russia is divided, for administrative purposes, into governments and districts, which are generally

^{1.} Previous to the year 1861, the great mass of (the Emperor Alexander II. (who was assassinated the people were series in a social condition but in 5k. Fetersburg on March 13, 1557), and great inprovement in the general condition of the the property of their owners, like so many head of cattle. Seridom, however, was abolished by

RUSSIA.

grouped under eight great divisions.¹ Four of the Russian 'governments' are called, from their situation, the *Baltic Provinces. Finland* is divided into eight districts. Nineteen governments, lying within the central portion of the empire, are distinguished as *Great Russia*; four (in the south-west, towards the river Dneiper) as *Little Russia*. Eight governments are known as *West Russia*, and ten as *Poland*—these embrace territories which formerly belonged to the kingdom of Poland. Six of the governments are known as *South Russia*, and ten as *East Russia*. The principal towns in each of the great divisions of Russia are shown in the following table :—

Divisions.	Chief Towns.	Divisions.	Chief Towns.
Baltic Provinces, { Finland, Great Russia, {	St. Petersburg, Cronstadt, Riga, Revel. Helsingfors, Abo. Moscow, Tula, Nijni-Novgorod, Tver, Smolensk, Archangel.	Little Russia, { West Russia, . Russian Poland South Russia, { East Russia, {	Kiev, Kharkoff, Poltava. Vilna, Minsk. Warsaw, Lodz. Odessa, Kishineff, Nikolaiev, Kherson, Taganrog, Rostov. Kazan, Saratov, Astrakhan, Samara, Orenburg, Perm.

Great Russia (Muscovy) gained its independence under Joan Baselowitz in 1479; East Russia (Kazan) was annexed in 1550-80; Little Russia (Ukraine) in 1686; the Baltic Provinces in 1700-10; South Russia (New Russia) in 1791; West Russia (Polish Russia) in 1795; the Grand Duchy of Finland was formerly a part of the Swedish monarchy, and only became attached to Russia in 1809. Poland was long a distinct and powerful kingdom. The territory to which the title of "Poland" is now given has been, since 1831, a Russian province, and embraces only a small part of the country formerly known by that name, the other portions having been annexed by Prussia and Austria. By the Treaty of Berlin (1878), which closed the Russ-Turkish war, the district of Bessarabia, east of the Pruth, was restored to Russia.

ST. PETERSBURG, the capital of the Russian Empire, stands beside the mouth of the river Neva, at the head of the Gulf of Finland. It has 900,000 inhabitants in summer and over a million in winter, and thus ranks high among European capitals in order of population. St. Petersburg is a splendid city, of modern origin, having been founded by Peter the Great in 1702.

Cronstadt (48), the port and naval arsenal of St. Petersburg, is on an island in the Gulf of Finland, a few miles to the west of the capital. Riga (196), at the outlet of the river Dwina into the Gulf of Riga (an arm of the Baltic), is an important scaport, one of the chief seats of Russian commerce. Revel (51), at the entrance of the Gulf of Finland, is also a port of some note. Helaingfors (58), on the north side of the gulf, is the provincial capital of Finland. It is defended by the fortified works of Sveaborg, which occupy several small islands in front of the port.

^{1.} Cancasia, which is politically divided into | but it properly belongs to Asia, and is therefore Ois-Caucasia and Trans-Caucasia, is by some | described under "Asiatio Russia," geographers treated as part of European Russia.

The ancient city of MOSCOW (753), in the heart of Russia, was long the capital of the empire, and is still the favourite object of Russian regard. Moscow stands on the river Moskva, an affluent of the Oka, which latter river joins the Volga. About sixty miles west of Moscow is the village of Borodino, the scene of a sanguinary engagement between the French and Russian armies in 1812.

Nijni-Novgorod (67), at the junction of the Oka and Volga, is an important seat of inland trade, distinguished by its great annual fair, the gathering-place of traders from nearly every nation of Europe and Asia. Archangel (30), near the mouth of the Northern Dwina, is the chief port for the commerce of the White Sea ; but its harbour is only free from ice during three months of each year. Klev (184), on the river Dnieper, is an ancient city, the seat of considerable trade. Warsaw (465), on the river Vistula, was the capital of the Polish monarchy, and is still a large city, though fallen from its former greatness. Odessa (304), on the Black Sea. is the chief seaport of southern Russia, and has a vast trade, chiefly in the export of corn. Nikolaiev (67), further to the east, at the mouth of the Bug (above its junction with the Dnieper), is a naval station, the "Ports-mouth" of the Black Sea. Sebastopol (34), which has been re-fortified, is on the western shore of the Crimea. Kertch is a seaport on the east coast of the Crimea, beside the strait which leads into the Sea of Azov. Kazan (133), in eastern Russia, is a large city to the east of the Volga, and is the centre of the trade with the Siberian provinces. Saratov (123) is on the west bank of the river. Astrakhan (74), the chief port for the commerce of the Caspian, is on the Volga, nearly 50 miles above its mouth.

QUESTIONS ON RUSSIA.

1. Name the boundaries of Russia, pointing to them on the map. 2. In points of size, what proportion does Russia bear to England and Wales? What are its dimensions from north to south? Russia? a. What sees adjoin the coast-line of Russia? In what way are they connected with the

occanit 4. What are the general features of Russia as to its surface? 5. Describe briefly the principal mountains of

Russis. 6. Name the principal rivers of Russis, with the seas into which they flow. 7. Mention the chief lakes. 8. By what is the climate of Russia distin-guished? 9. What articles of utility are derived from the extensive forests of Russia ? 10. In what part of Russia is mineral produce abundant?

11. To what number does the total population

11. To what number does the total population of Russia amount? 12. What industrial pursuits employ the greater number of the Russian population? 13. What articles of commercial produce does

Russia export? 14. What form of government has Russia, and what is the national religion?

15 Into how many governments is Russia

15. Into how many governments is Assessed divided? 17. On what river does the capital of Russia. 17. On what river does the capital of Russia stand? Who founded it? 18. What div was the ancient capital of the Russian Empire? On what river is ft? 19. In what part of Russia are Helsingfors, Nini-Novgorod, Kiev, Odessa, Nikolaiev, and Sebastopol? 20. On what rivers are Riga, Kiev, Warsaw, Archangel, and Astrakhan?

TURKEY IN EUROPE.

TURKEY is a large country in south-eastern Europe, and was formerly much more extensive than at present. Before 1878, it included the, at present, independent States of Roumania, to the north, and Servia, to the south, of the Danube. The present kingdom of Greece was a province of the Turkish Empire from the commencement of the 16th century till 1830.

BOUNDARIES.—Turkey in Europe is bounded on the north by Austria, Servia, and Roumania; on the west, by the Adriatic Sea and the Mediterranean; on the south, by Greece, the Ægean Sea, and the Sea of Marmora; and on the east, by the Black Sea.

EXTENT.—The area of European Turkey is estimated at 125,289 square miles, or more than twice the size of England and Wales. Only half of this area is now directly under Turkish rule.

COASTS.—The total length of *coast-line* is estimated at 1,500 miles, equal to an average of 1 mile of coast to every 83 square miles of area. The principal features are :—

1. Capes.-Kaliakra and Emineh on the east, Monte Santo on the south, and Linguetta, or Glossa, on the west.

2. Inlets.—The Gulf of Burgas on the east; Gulfs of Contessa, Monte Santo, Kassandra, Salonica, and Volo, on the south; and the Gulf of Arta on the west.

3. Straits.—The Strait of Constantinople, leading from the Sea of Marmora to the Black Sea; the Dardenelles, connecting the Agean Sea with the Sea of Marmora; and the Strait of Otranto, joining the Ionian and Adriatic Seas.

ISLANDS.—The islands of the Archipelago belong, for the most part, to the Kingdom of Greece; but those that lie near its northern and eastern shores are Turkish. The large island of Candia or Crete, to the south of the Archipelago, belongs to Turkey.

Crete or **Candia** is, after Cyprus, the largest island in the eastern Mediterranean, and has an area of about 3,000 square miles. Though mountainous, its soil is naturally fertile; the valleys producing olive oil, wine, oranges, &c., while the hill-sides are covered with magnificent forests, in which numbers of wolves, wild boars, and other animals are found. The inhabitants number upwards of 200,000, nearly all Greeks. The chief towns are *Candia* (the capital), *Retima*, and *Canea*.¹ Suda Bay, near Canea, is a naval station.

Off the south coast of Roumelia is the island of **Thaso**, 85 square miles in area. The other Turkish islands of the Archipelago geographically belong to, and are described under, Asiatic Turkey.

MOUNTAINS.—The country generally is mountainous, though there are some level districts of large extent. Of the mountains, the chief are the Balkans, the Dinaric Alps, and the Pindus Range.

1. The Balkan³ Mountains stretch across the centre of Turkey, in the direction of east and west. The average height of the main range is from 2,000 to 3,000 feet, but it attains in *Koja Balkan*, west of the now famous Shipka Pass, an elevation of 5,900 feet. From the principal chain four minor ranges are given off—one to the north, extending to the bank of the Danube at the "Iron Gate;" another south-east, between the Kara-su and the Maritza.

^{1.} The harbours of Kalos Limenas and Lutro on the south coast are the Fair Havens and 2. Balkan (Turkish), meaning high "ridge."

known as the Despoto Dagh¹ or Rhodope Mountains; a third, the Little Balkans, extending from the main range, fifty miles west of Burgas, to the neighbourhood of Constantinople; while the fourth trends due west to the lofty group of the Skhar Dagh, the culminating point of which is upwards of 10,000 feet above the sea.

2. The Dinarie Alps (which are an outlying portion of the great mountainsystem of the Alps) extend along the shores of the Adriatic. They become united to the western extremity of the Balkan system in the group of the Skhar Dagh, already mentioned.

3. The Pindus Range branches off to the south from the Skhar Dagh, and extends in that direction into Greece—forming a sort of backbone to the peninsular portion of Turkey, and dividing the waters of its eastern and western seas. This range, between Albania and Thessaly, is 9,000 feet high, but the famous *Mount Olympus* (the classic seat of the gods of Greek mythology), near the western shore of the Gulf of Salonica, attains an elevation of 9,700 feet.

Plains.—Bulgaria, to the north of the Balkans, forms part of the large Plain of the Lower Danube; south of the Balkans is the Plain of Adrianople, drained by the Maritza. The Plain of Thessaly, east of the Pindus Range, is drained by the Salembria, which is almost entirely within Greece.

RIVERS.—The principal rivers of European Turkey are the Danube, flowing into the Black Sea; the Maritza, Kara-su, Struma, and Vardar, flowing into the Ægean Sea; the Kalama, flowing into the Ionian Sea; and the Drin and Voyussa, flowing into the Adriatic.

1. The **Danube** is not only the most considerable river of Turkey, but also the only one that is permanently navigable, and forms for some distance its northern boundary. It enters Turkey a short distance above Widin, and leaves it at Silistria, where it enters Roumania, and ultimately reaches the Black Sea. Its chief feeders below Belgrade are the *Morava*, which flows through Servia; the *Aluta*, *Sereth*, and *Pruth*, in Roumania; and the *Isker*, in the principality of Bulgraia.

2. The **Maritza**, which rises in the Despoto Dagh, has a length of 320 miles and a basin of 17,500 square miles, and is navigable during the winter for small vessels as high as Adrianople, 106 miles from the sea.

LAKES.—The lakes are *Scutari*, drained by the Boyana; *Ochrida*, drained by the Drin; and *Janina*, which has no visible outlet—all three situated on the western side of the Pindus Range, within the Adriatic and Mediterranean basins.

CLIMATE.—Most parts of Turkey have a warm and delightful climate—much warmer than that of England, as is the case with all the countries that border on the Mediterranean. But to the north of the Balkan the winters are severe.

PRODUCTIONS.—The productions of the vegetable kingdom are exceedingly rich and varied. Evergreen foliage distinguishes the southern and south-western slopes of Turkey. The vine grows luxuriantly to the south of the Balkan, and the fig, olive, and mulberry are abundant : the orange also thrives. Corn is grown abund-

^{1.} Dagh, mountain ; Despoto Dagh, "monks'" mountains.

antly in the provinces watered by the Danube. *Iron* and other minerals abound in the hilly tracts adjoining the Balkan chain, but they are only worked to a limited extent.

DIVISIONS.—By the Treaty of Berlin, 1878, Bulgaria and Eastern Roumelia were formed into autonomous (self-governing) tributary principalities; Bosnia and Herzegovina were handed over to Austria, to be occupied and administered for an indefinite period; Roumania, Servia, and Montenegre were definitely acknowledged as independent States, and acquired additional territory.

European Turkey thus includes (1) **Turkey Proper**, comprising the provinces still under the direct rule of the Porte; (2) the self-governing **Principality of Bulgaria**, of which the province of **Eastern Roumelia** has formed, since 1886, an integral part, under the name of *South Bulgaria*; and (3) **Bosnia** and **Herzegovina**, occupied and administered by Austria as a portion of the empire.

I. TURKEY PROPER.

TURKEY PROPER is bounded on the north by Bulgaria, Servia, and Montenegro; on the south, by the Sea of Marmora, the Dardanelles, the Ægean Sea, and Greece; on the east by the Black Sea and the Strait of Constantinople; and on the west by the Adriatic and the Ionian Sea. Turkey Proper has an area of 66,500 square miles, which exceeds that of England and Wales by about 8,500 square miles.

INHABITANTS.—The population of Turkey Proper is about $4\frac{3}{4}$ millions, 700,000 of whom are Turks, $1\frac{1}{2}$ millions **Albanians**, and $1\frac{1}{4}$ millions **Greeks**, **Bulgarians**, &c.

INDUSTRIES.—Turkey is a badly-governed country, and the pursuits of industry are hence at a low ebb. Its great natural capabilities—in soil, climate, and vegetation—are for the most part neglected. In the northern districts, large numbers of oxen and sheep are reared on the rich natural pastures. In the towns, the preparation of morocco leather is pursued with considerable skill. There are works in metal upon a scale of some magnitude in the larger towns. In Albania and the other mountain districts, the people are chiefly shepherds.

Commerce.—The amount of the foreign trade is considerable, and a large portion of it is carried on with the United Kingdom. Greeks, Armenians, and Englishmen are the chief agents in this trade. The **annual value** of the *imports* is nearly 20 millions sterling; that of the *exports*, about 13[‡] millions sterling.

Exports and Imports.-Fruits (chiefly raisins and figs), wheat and corn, olive oil, wine, wax, honey, raw silk and silk cocoons, sponges, attar of roses, minerals, and other natural produce-with wool, tobacco, morocco beather, and carpets (the latter worked by the women of the nomad tribes who occupy portions of Asiatic Turkey)-form the *exports* of Turkey. The chief *imports* are cotton, woollen and linen manufactures, wheat and four, coal and iron, coffee and sugar, petroleum, &c. The exports from Turkey to Great Britain amount to 11 millions, and the imports of British produce into Turkey to about 34 millions sterling.

The *imports* from Asiatic to European Turkey amount to about 32 millions sterling a year, and the *exports* to 32 millions.

The chief ports are Constantinople, Salonica, Enos, and Gallipoli.

The means of internal communication are defective; there are no canals or manigable rivers in Turkey Proper, few of the wretchedly-constructed roads are practicable for carriages, and goods are transported mostly by pack animals. Previous to 1869 there were no railways, but at present there are about 900 miles open for traffic, and Turkey has been, since 1888, in direct railway communication with the rest of Europe. The main lines start from CONSTAN-TINOPLE and SALOMICA-the latter is now the nearest port, on the European mainland, to Egypt.

GOVEBNMENT.—The government of Turkey is a despotic monarchy, in which the Sultan (as the sovereign is called) exercises an authority that is practically absolute. The central Government is carried on under the direction of the Sultan by the Grand Vizier and a Council of Ministers, while religious matters are regulated by the "Sheik-ul-Islam," the head of the Church. The government of the various provinces is administered by Pashas, appointed by the Sultan.

The annual **Revenue** is about 16²/₄ millions sterling, and the **Expenditure** about 19¹/₅ millions, while the **Public Debt**, foreign and internal, amounts to about 180 millions sterling.

Military service is compulsory on all the Mohammedan subjects of the Sultan, but non-Mohammedans pay an exemption tax. The permanent Army contains 150,000 men and 10,000 officers, but in time of war more than 800,000 trained men could be called out for service. The Turkish Navy consists of 64 steamers, of which 15 are *ironicais*, and 52 torpedo-boats, and is manned by 80,000 sailors and 10,000 marines. The shores of the Bosphorus and the Dardanelles are strongly fortified.

Religion and Education.—The Turks themselves are Mohammedans, but the rest of the population of Turkey are members of the Greek Church. Public education, although encouraged, has not made much progress, and the limited instruction given in the public schools and colleges is based on the Koran.

DIVISIONS.—Turkey Proper is divided into **Vilayets** or governments, which are again subdivided into **Sanjaks**, or provinces, and **Kazas**, or districts.

The seven Vilayets of Turkey Proper are Constantinople (city), Adrianople, Salonica, Monastir, Janina, Scutari (Albania), and Kossovo.

The island of Candia or Orete is divided into the three provinces of Retima, Khania, and Candia.

CONSTANTINOPLE (873) is the capital of the Turkish Empire. It stands at the southern entrance of the Strait of Constantinople the Thracian Bosphorus of the ancients—in a commanding situation. **Pera** and **Galata** are the chief suburbs.

Adrianople (100), the second city of Turkey, is on the banks of the

river Maritza (the ancient Hebrus), to the north-west of the capital. Gallipoli (11) is on the northern shores of the Dardanelles (the Hellespont of ancient geography). Salonica (60), anciently Thessalonica, is at the head of a Gulf of the same name in the north-western corner of the Archipelago. and is a place of considerable trade.

II. BULGARIA.

The Principality of BULGARIA,¹ with which EASTERN ROUMELIA is incorporated under the name of South Bulgaria, extends from the Danube on the north, and Servia on the west, to the Turkish pro-vince of Adrianople on the south. The Black Sea forms its eastern Its area is about 24,000 square miles,² and its populaboundary. tion numbers fully $3\frac{1}{2}$ millions,^s of whom about $2\frac{1}{2}$ millions are *Bulgarians*, and half a million *Turks*. The Bulgarian people, though of Finnish origin, speak the Servian language, and are nearly all members of the Greek Church.

1. The soil is generally fertile, and large quantities of wheat and other grains are grown and exported. Much attention is also paid to the rearing of cattle and sheep, and wool, tallow, butter, and hides are exported. *Iron* and *coal* are also found, but "nothing has been done to develop these valuable productions of nature." The means of intercommunication are deficient; there are few good roads, but there are two lines of railway—(1) the great trunk-line from Constantinople to Paris, passing through Philippopolis and Sofia, and (2) a line connecting Rustchuk, on the Danube, and Shumla with Varna.

2. Bulgaria is virtually independent, governed by a prince elected by the "National Assembly." The sovereignty of the Porte is nominally acknow-ledged by the payment of an annual tribute. A certain portion of the Public Debt of the Turkish Empire has been taken over by the Principality.

3. The chief towns are SOFIA (30), the capital, on the northern slopes of the Balkans; Varna (25), a fortified port on the Black Sea; Tirnova, the old capital of the Bulgarian kingdom ; and the famous fortresses of Widin, Rustchuk, Shumla, and Silistria, memorable in connection with the war between Russia and Turkey in 1877-78.

The province of EASTERN ROUMELIA, formed in 1878 in accordance with the Treaty of Berlin, and now, under the name of South Bulgaria, an integral part of the Principality, has an area of 13,500 square miles, 4 and a population, in 1888, of 960,000.5 The soil is in parts extremely fertile, and on the southern slopes of the Balkans are the chief rose-growing districts.

The people are mainly Bulgarians, and were, until 1885, governed by a Christian Governor-General appointed by the Sultan, with the consent of the Great Powers.

The chief towns are **Philippopolis** (33), the former capital of the province; Kasanlik and Slivno, the centres of the manufacture of attar of roses; Burgas

1. Bulgaria formed an independent kingdom	2. Nearly two-fifths the area of England and
from the middle of the 7th to the middle of the	Wales.
14th century, when it was annexed by the Hun-	8. An average of 90 persons per square mile,
garians, from whom it was wrested by the Turks	about one-sixth that of England.
in 1392. The misgovernment of Bulgaria by the	4. One-fourth the area of England and Wales.
Turks was one of the principal causes of the	5. An average of only 71 persons to the square
Russo-Turkish war of 1877-78.	mile. In England the average density of popu-
	lation is 540 per square mile.

is the port. In the Balkans, on the north, is the now famous Shipka Pass. Tartar Bazardjik, in the west, is connected by rail with Adrianople, and thence with Constantinople.

III. BOSNIA AND HERZEGOVINA.

Before the Russo-Turkish war of 1877-78, Bosnia and Herzegovina, in the north-west of the Balkan peninsula, formed part of the Turkish dominions.

Article 23 of the Treaty of Berlin (1878) declared that these provinces were to be occupied and administered by Austria-Hungary, and they are now treated as integral parts of the Austro-Hungarian Empire. Austrian troops also occupy the Sanjak of Novibazar, which lies south of Bosnia, between Servia and Montenegro, but the civil administration of the district is still in the hands of the Turks.

QUESTIONS ON TURKEY IN EUROPE.

How is Turkey bounded?
 What islands belong to Turkey?
 What mountain chains are within the limits of European Turkey?
 Describe briefly the course of the river Dannbe, and name the principal streams by which it is joined.
 What five rivers flow through Turkey into the Archicelago?
 What kind of climate has Turkey? Name some of ite vegetable productions.
 What were the chief provisions of the Treaty of Berlin?
 Give the area and boundaries of Turkey Proper.

9. Name its principal industries and produc-

Name is principal industries and produc-tions.
 10. Give in round numbers the population of Turkey in Europe before and after the war of 1877-78.

What form of government prevails in Tur-key, and how is the sovereign styled?
 What is the religion of the Turks them-selves, and what is that of the other inhabitants of Turkey?
 How is Turkey divided for administrative purposes? Name the vilayets and chief towns

purposes? Name the vilayets and chief solves of each. 15. What do you know of Adrianople, Galli-poli, and Salonica? 16. Which of the provinces are now semi-inde-pendent principalities? 17. What form of government prevails in Bul-garia? What do you know of South Bulgaria? 18. Give particulars of the situation, produc-tions, &c., of the principality. 18. Where are Bosnia and Herzegovina, and to what State do they now virtually belong?

what State do they now virtually belong?

INDEPENDENT STATES.

Bulgaria and South Bulgaria nominally form part of European Turkey. Three other States, formerly tributary to the Porte, namely, Servia and Montenegro, to the south, and Roumania, to the north, of the Danube, are entirely independent.

MONTENEGRO.1

This small State lies to the north-west of Turkey Proper, and has been virtually independent since the 17th century. By the Treaty of Berlin, not only was its absolute independence acknowledged and guaranteed, but several portions of the adjacent Turkish territories were added to it.

The ceded districts comprise the port of Antivari, with a seaboard of some 28 miles in length, the fortified town of Podgoritza, and part of Lake Scutari. In 1880, the town and district of Dulcigno were also ceded by Turkey. With these additions, the Principality has an area of only 3,630 square miles,² and a total population of about 300,000, of whom 10,000 are Mohammedans, 4,000 Roman Catholics; the rest belong to the Orthodox Greek Church.

SERVIA.

The country is entirely covered by irregular precipitous spurs of the Dinaric Alps, and inter-communication is exceedingly difficult, there being no navigable rivers, and scarcely any roads. Montenegro is remarkable only for the indomitable spirit and energy of its inhabitants, who have successfully maintained their independence for two centuries. The capital is **Cettinje** (2), where the Prince or Hospodar resides and the State Council meets. **Dulcigno has 5,000**, **Podgoritza 6,000**, and Nikrsics 3,000 inhabitants.

SERVIA.

Servia includes the territory on either side of the Morava, and extends to the frontiers of Bulgaria on the east, and Bosnia on the west. The Danube forms the northern boundary. Its area is 18,800 square miles, or about one-third that of England and Wales.

NATURAL FEATURES.—Servia is decidedly mountainous, being traversed in all directions by spurs (generally well wooded) of the *Dinaric Alps* and the *Balkans*. It is well watered by numerous tributaries of the Danube, which forms the natural boundary on the north. The largest river is the *Morava*, which flows almost through the centre of the country from south to north.

CLIMATE and **PRODUCTIONS.**—Servia, being subject to extremes of heat and cold, its climate is variable. The soil is on the whole fertile, and about one-third of the total area is under cultivation, the rest serving as pastures for immense herds of swine, which form the principal articles of export.¹ Its *mineral productions* comprise coal, gold, copper, zinc, lead, and iron. Wheat, tobacco, silk, wine, and timber are also exported.²

INHABITANTS.—The population of Servia numbers about 2 millions, nearly all of whom are Serbs or Slavs.

GOVERNMENT.—The executive power is vested in the King; the legislative authority is exercised by the King in conjunction with the *Sovjet* or Senate, and the *Narodna-Skupshtina* or National Assembly.

Servia became autonomous on the conclusion of the war of 1815-29, but remained tributary to Turkey until 1877, when it proclaimed its independence, which was finally confirmed by Article 34 of the Treaty of Berlin, July 13, 1878. The *Revenue* and *Expenditure* each amount to about 1 $\frac{3}{4}$ million sterling. The *Public Debt* amounts to about 12 millions. The Servian army, on a war footing, numbers about 210,000 men.

DIVISIONS and TOWNS.—Servia is divided into 15 provinces, which are named after the chief towns in each. The principal towns are **Belgrade** (40), the capital, a strongly-fortified town on the junction of the Save with the Danube; **Semendria**, also fortified; **Kruschevatz**, the ancient capital of the Servian kingdom; and **Nissa** or Nish, the chief town of the territory acquired under the Treaty of Berlin.

^{1.} The vast majority of the people are engaged 2. The bulk of the trade, which amounts to about 3 millions sterling a year, is carried on with Austria-Hungary.

ROUMANIA.

Roumania,¹ proclaimed a kingdom in 1881, was formed in 1861 by the union of Moldavia and Wallachia, two provinces occupying the plain between the Carpathians and the Danube. Its area, including the territory of the Dobrudja to the south of the Danube, is 48,000 square miles, about five-sixths that of England and Wales.

Bessarabia was taken from Russia by the Treaty of Paris (1856), but was restored in 1878, Roumania being compensated by the addition of the Sanjak of Tulcha, or the Dobrudja, south of the Danube, and the islands forming the delta of that river.

NATURAL FEATURES.—The western districts verging on the Carpathians are hilly, but the greater part of the country is level, and well watered by the Aluta, Arjish, Prahova, Sereth, and other tributaries of the Danube.

CLIMATE and PRODUCTIONS.—The climate is a strictly continental one, i.e., subject to extremes of heat and cold. The mountainous western part is well wooded, and the extensive plains are admirably suited for both pastoral and agricultural purposes. The productions comprise the various kinds of grain and fruits, and immense herds of cattle and sheep are reared. Various minerals are also abundant, but only salt and petroleum are worked.

INHABITANTS.—The population is now estimated at 5,500,000, an average of 114 persons to the square mile-less than a fourth of the average density of population in England. There are 400,000 Jews, and an equal number of Gipsies, Slavs, Germans, and other foreigners, the bulk of the people being Roumanians, who are the descendants of Roman colonists and the native Dacians.

Education and Religion .- Education is by law free and compulsory, but only 2 per cent. of the population attend school. The entire population, with the exception of about a million Catholics, Protestants, and Jews, are members of the Orthodox Greek Church.

INDUSTRIES.—Cattle and sheep rearing and agriculture are the chief industries. Manufactures, on a limited scale, are carried on in a few of the larger towns.

Wheat, barley, maize, and other corn, timber, and wool, are largely exported: the imports are chiefly manufactured goods and colonial produce. The imports exceed in value the exports ; the former amounting to about 12 millions sterling. and the latter to about 10 millions.² In 1891, there were 1,600 miles of railway open for traffic.

GOVERNMENT.—The government is a limited monarchy, the king being assisted by an Executive Council and an elected Senate and Chamber of Deputies.

1. Ecumania, or Romania, the country of the Romani, i.e., the descendants of the old Roman of produce, chiefy cors (maise, wheat, and bar-colonists and the native Decians. Three-fourths ley, is annually sent to Great Britain; the imports thereform, consisting principally of tarthé patries, match goods, and coal, amount to 2. The trade with the United Kingdom is con-

GREECE.

After the formation of the Principality in 1861, Roumania continued to pay an annual tribute to the Porte until 1877, when it proclaimed its entire independence, which was finally confirmed, by the Treaty of Berlin, in 1878. The Revenue and Expenditure each amount to about 51 millions sterling, while the *Public Debt* is no less than 38 millions. The military forces of Roumania consist of the "Permanent Army," numbering about 52,000 men; the "Terri-torial Army," 82,000, besides the Militia, National Guard, and general levy.

DIVISIONS and TOWNS.—Wallachia is divided into 18, and Moldavia into 13, districts, each under a prefect or governor.

The chief towns are BUCHAREST (222), the capital and seat of the government, with some important manufactures; Jassy (90), the chief town of Moldavia; other towns are Galatz (80), the principal port of the kingdom, Braila (28), and Ismail, two other important ports on the Danube.

QUESTIONS ON MONTENEGRO, SERVIA, AND ROUMANIA.

1. What three States became completely inde-pendent of the Porte in 1878? 2. Where is Montenerro? State what you know of the country and its inhabitante. 3. How is Borria bounded? What is its present area

4. Describe the physical character of Servia, its climate and productions.
5. How is Servia divided? Name the chief

5. How is period a second seco

of Berlin? Describe the particular territorial

6. What part of the country is (a) mountain-s. (b) lovel?
10. What is meant by a "continental" climatel

matter : 11. Name the principal industries and produc-tions of Roumania. 12. What is the population of Roumania, and to what races do the people belong? 13. What is the form of government? When

did Roumania become (a) partly, and (b) fully, in-dependent of Turkey? 14. Where are Bucharest, Jassy, Galatz, and

Braila?

GREECE.

GREECE¹ is a small country in the south of Europe, and consists of three well-marked divisions :—Northern Greece, Southern Greece or the Morea.² and the adjacent islands, or Insular Greece.

The Morea forms a peninsula which is nearly divided from the rest of the mainland by the Gulf of Corinth. The Isthmus of Corinth (only three miles across) unites this peninsula to Northern Greece.

BOUNDARIES.—Greece is bounded on the *north* by Turkey, on the west and south by the Mediterranean, and on the east by the Ægean Sea.

EXTENT.—Including the Ionian Islands, the total area of the kingdom of Greece is nearly 25,000 square miles-about half the size of England.

The greatest length, from north to south, is 205 miles. The greatest breadth, from east to west, is 160 miles.

1. Greece, or Grzeia, so called by the Romans. | given to other countries inhabited by the Greeks The old Greek name, "Hellas," was not exclu-sively applied to Greece proper, but was also by the old Greeks "the Peloponnesus."

In 1879, the actual area of Greece was officially estimated at 19.941 square miles, of which Northern Greece comprised 7,529 square miles; Southern Greece, 8,263 square miles; and Insular Greece, 4,149 square miles.

In 1881, Greece acquired from Turkey a portion of Albania, comprising an area of 5,170 square miles; so that the total area of the kingdom is now about 25,000 square miles.

COASTS.—The mainland of Greece has the sea upon three sides. and its coasts are indented by a vast number of inlets. The peninsula of the Morea is subdivided and broken up by deep bays and gulfs into several smaller peninsulas. The total length of coast-line is upwards of 2,000 miles, or rather more than 1 mile of coast to every 12 square miles of area.

Thirlwall remarks that "Greece is distinguished among European countries by the same character which distinguishes Europe itself from the other continents, viz., the great range of its coast compared with the extent of its surface; so that while in the latter respect it is considerably less than Portugal, in the former it exceeds the whole Pyrenean Peninsula."1

1. Capes. - The two principal capes are Cape Matapan^{*} and Cape Colonna.³ Cape Matapan is the extreme southern point of the Morea. Cape Colonna is the southward termination of the peninsula of Attica. in Northern Greece.

2. Inlets.-The Gulfs of Volo, Ægina, and Nauplia on the east; the Gulfs of Marathonisi and Koroni or Kalamata on the south; and the Gulfs of Patras, Corinth or Lepanto, and Arta on the west.

3. Straits .- The principal straits are those between the islands of Negropont, Cerigo, and Corfu, and the mainland.

ISLANDS. —A large portion of Greece consists of islands, naturally divisible into four groups, viz. :---

1. Eubosa or Negropont, * more than 100 miles long, is the largest island of Greece. It is divided from the mainland by the channels of Talanta and Egripo, the former of which is only 50 yards wide in its narrowest part. To the north-east and south of it lie-

2. The **Sporades**,⁵ of which the principal are Skyro, Skopelos, Koluri, Egina, and Spezzia.

3. The Cyclades^e are so called because they seem to encircle the sacred island of Delos. The principal islands are Andros, Tinos, Naxos, Paros, Milos, and Santorin."

4. The Ionian Islands are situated to the west and south of Greece. They 4. The **Johnsh Islands** are situated to the west and south or creece. They comprehend *Corfu*, *Paxo*, *Santa Maura*, *Ithaca*, *Cephalonia*, *Zante*, and *Cerigo*, with many smaller islets. These islands exhibit, for the most part, a rocky and even mountainous surface. They enjoy a delightful climate, and have a soil which (in some localities) is fertile and productive. The small species of vine which yields the Corinthian grape (the fruit of which reaches our own shores under the familiar name of currants) is their most characteristic article of produce. The olive also flourishes. The *inhabitants* of the

- Sporades, Gr. sporas, sporados, scattered.
 Gyciades, Gr. kukios, a circle.
 Santorin is the seat of volcanic fires, which are almost constantly burning.

History of Greece, chap. 1.
 Tanariem Promosforium.
 Hastiam Promosforium.
 A bridge connects the island with the main-land, whence the name Negropont, from Egripo, and posts, a bridge.

GREECE.

Ionian islands are of the Greek race. They number rather more than 250,000. The largest of the islands is Cephalonia; Corfu is second in size, and Zante third. Corfu and Zante are the most populous and industrious of the number.

The Ionian Islands were formerly under the protection of Great Britain, but were incorporated with Greece in 1863. The town of Corfu (19), on the island of that name, is the capital.

MOUNTAINS.—Every part of Greece is mountainous. The highest elevations reach upwards of 8,000 feet above the sea. Mount St. Elias (the ancient Taygetus), in the south of the Morea, is one of the most celebrated.

The mountains known to the ancients by the names of Œta, Parnassus, Helicon, Cithæron, with others that are famous in classic story, are within the limits of Northern Greece—that is, to the north of the Gulf of Corinth. In Thessaly, are Mount Ossa (Kissovo), 6,400 feet, and Mount Pelion (Plessidi), 5,300 feet in height. Between Mount Œta and the sea lies the famous Pass of Thermopyle.1

RIVERS.—Greece has no rivers of any magnitude. The small streams by which the country is watered, though bearing names that are famous in the records of past ages, are for the most part mere torrents.

The largest rivers in Northern Greece are the **Salembria**, in Thessaly; the **Aspropotamo** (the ancient *Achelous*), which rises in the Pindus Range; and the **Arta**, which flows into the gulf of the same name. The largest river of the Morea is the Rufia (the ancient Alpheus), which flows into the Bay of Arkadia.

Lakes.-There are numerous lakes, but none of any considerable size. The largest is Lake Topolias, in Northern Greece, which is drained into the Strait of Talanta by subterranean channels.

CLIMATE.-Greece has a warm and delightful climate, snow seldom lying on the lowlands.

The mean annual temperature at Athens is 60° F., but in summer the tem-perature is frequently 100° F., and the heat then is so great that most of the smaller streams, and even some of the larger rivers, are dried up.

PRODUCTIONS.—Though much of the surface of the country is occupied by sterile rock, yet the vegetation is richly abundant, wherever sufficient soil can be found for its growth. The vine and the olive, the orange, lemon, citron, fig, and mulberry are amongst its native fruits. The cotton-plant grows wild, as also does madder. The honey of Attica still preserves its ancient fame.

The various marbles and building-stones of Greece are of deserved celebrity. The island of Paros, in particular, yields the finest statuary marble. Mineral springs are very numerous, and many of the running streams are lost in subterranean chasms.

INHABITANTS.—The population of Greece is about 24 millions, an average of only 90 per square mile.² The Greeks are quick, intelligent, and enterprising, and have made great progress since the successful insurrection of 1821-29, when they gained their independence.

Race and Language.-Three-fourths of the people are probably descended from the old Greeks, and their language, the Romaic, closely resembles the ancient Greek tongue. Besides the Greeks proper there are about 100,900 Albanians or Arnauts, who are the most intelligent and enterprising of the population.

Religion and Education.—The *Greek Church* represents the established form of *religion*, and to it the great majority of the inhabitants belong. Public *education* is compulsory, but the law is very rarely enforced in country districts, and about one-half of the men and three-fourths of the women can neither read nor write.

INDUSTRIES.—The industry of Greece is chiefly pastoral, but a considerable amount of trade is carried on from the various ports. Currants and other fruits, olive-oil, honey, tobacco, and cotton are the exportable produce of the country.

Only one-sixth of the land is actually under cultivation; and although agriculture is in a very backward state, the produce is considerable. Large quantities of various dried fruits are exported, but the corn grown is not sufficient for home consumption.

Commerce.—The commerce of the kingdom is considerable, the value of the *imports* being about 44 millions sterling, and the *exports* about 34 millions. The staple article of export is *currants*, of which immense quantities are grown along the shores of the Gulf of Corinth and on the Ionian Islands.¹

Internal Communication.—Still defective, although the *roads* have been greatly improved, and there are now about 400 miles of *railway* open. Most of the trade is carried on by sea, the mercantile navy numbering 80 steamers and 5,000 sailing vessels. A ship-canal is being cut across the Isthmus of Corinth.

GOVERNMENT.—The kingdom of Greece forms a limited and hereditary monarchy. The legislative power is vested in an elected Chamber of Representatives called the *Boulé*.

The Revenue and Expenditure each amount to about 3 millions sterling, while the *Public Debt* amounts to 224 millions. The army consists, in peace, of about 26,000 men, but in war time over 300,000 men could be put in the field. The navy consists of a few vessels, manned by about 3,000 men.

DIVISIONS and **TOWNS**.—The country is physically divided into Northern Greece (the part of the Greek mainland which is to the north of the Gulf of Corinth), the Morea, and the Islands.

I	Divis	ions.				Chief Towns.
Northern Gre Thessaly .	ece	:	:	:	 :	Athens, Livadia, Thiva, Lepanto. Trikkala, Larissa, Volo.
The Morea The Islands	•	:	:	•	:	Patras, Nauplia, Corinth. Syra, Egripo or Negropont, Corfu.

Politically, the kingdom is divided into 17 Nomarchies or governments, which are further subdivided into Eparchies or provinces.

ATHENS (107) is the capital of modern Greece. It is on the western side of the peninsula of Attica, about five miles distant from the harbour of the Pirzeus (34), which forms its port. Athens is a city

^{1.} Currants, so called from the city of Corinth. (including that of the Ionian Islands) amounted Value of currante exported to Great Britain in 1569, 51,85,000. The total crop in the same yea

ITALY.

of moderate size, but greatly surpasses in this respect any other place The interest belonging to localities in this classic land in Greece. depends upon their association with the events of a past age. The sites of Marathon and Salamis are not far distant from the capital -the former twenty miles to the north-east. Salamis is represented by the modern Koluri, an island in the Gulf of Athens.

Thiva, a small town to the north-west of Athens, represents the Bœotian Thebes. Further west, a short distance from the shore of the Gulf of Corinth, and at the foot of Parnassus, is the village of Kastri, the ancient Delphi, the oracle of Apollo, and the fabled haunt of the Muses. Nearly due north of Kastri, on the shore of the strait which flows between the mainland and the island of Negropont, is Thermopylæ.

Patras (34) and Nauplia, both situated on the coasts of the Morea, are, next to the capital, the most important seats of Greek commerce. Patras lies near the entrance of the Gulf of Corinth. Nauplia is at the head of a gulf of the same name on the eastern side of the peninsula, in the vicinity of the ancient Argos. Corinth, near the isthmus to which its name is given, is now small and unimportant; as also is Sparta, near the site of the ancient Sparta, in the southerly portion of the Morea. A ship-canal is now being cut across the isthmus of Corinth.

Syra or Hermonpolis (25), on the island of that name, is commercially the most important among the towns of insular Greece. The little island of *Delos*, the fabled birthplace of Apollo and Artemis, is only a few miles east of Syra (between the two larger islands of Rhenea and Mykoni).

Corfu (19) is the capital of the Ionian Islands.

QUESTIONS ON GREECE.

Where is Greece? How is it bounded?
 What peninsula forms part of Greece?
 Name the two most important capes of Greece?
 Mame some of the Greek islands.
 Mame some of the Greek islands.
 Bestime bound in the matural features and bestime bound in well known in classical antiquity, are within the limits of modern Greece?

Greece? 7. What kind of climate and soil has Greece? Name some of the fruits that are native to its

8. To what pursuits is the industry of Greece

ON GREECE. chiefly devoted? What articles of produce form the chief exports? 9. What is the population and form of govern-ment, and how is the country divided (a) pysically, (b) politically. 10. What city forms the capital of Greece? 11. In what parts of Greece are the following sites --Marathon. Salamis, Delphi, Thermopyle, Sparta, and Argos? 12. What two places are-next to Athens--the chief scats of Greek commerce? 13. Where is Syra? What island, famous in classic story, is within the neighbouring portion of the Archipelago?

ITALY.

ITALY¹ is a large country of southern Europe. The greater portion of it forms a peninsula which advances far into the Mediterranean.

BOUNDARIES.—Italy is bounded on the north by Austria and Switzerland; on the north-west by France; on the south-west and south by the Mediterranean ; and on the east by the Adriatic Sea.

Italy is divided from France, Switzerland, and the Tyrol by the magnificent ranges of the Alps, and from the maritime provinces of Austria, Western Turkey, and Greece by the Adriatic Sea.

In shape, Italy is likened to a boot, the two smaller peninsulas into which it divides in the south forming respectively the toe and the heel.

^{1.} Italy, the country of the Itali, an ancient tribe who occupied the southern parts of the peninsula.

EXTENT.—The total *area* of Italy, including the islands, is estimated at 114,000 square miles, or nearly twice that of England and Wales.

The greatest length, from north-west to south-east, is about 700 miles.

The breadth varies from 350 miles in the north to between 80 and 140 miles in the centre, and less than 20 miles near its southern extremity.

COASTS.—Although regular and unbroken, except on the south, the coast-line of Italy is very extensive, and includes a great number of good harbours. The total length of the coast-line is about 4,000 miles, or about 1 mile of coast to every 28 square miles of area. Several parts of the Italian coast, such as the Bay of Naples and the Gulf of Genoa, are famous for their scenery.

The principal capes, inlets, and straits are :--

1. Capes.—The principal are Spartivento, Santa Maria di Leuca, and Passaro. Cape Spartivento is the most southerly point of the Italian mainland; Cape Santa Maria di Leuca is the extreme south-eastern point; Cape Passaro is the southern point of Sicily.

2. Inlets.—The Adriatic Sea (the northerly part of which forms the Gulf of Venice), the Gulf of Taranto, the Bay of Naples, the Gulf of Gaeta, and the Gulf of Genoa, are all of them arms of the Mediterranean.

3. Straits.—The Strait of Otranto, at the entrance of the Adriatic; the Strait of Messina, between Italy and the island of Sicily; and the Strait of Bonifacio, between the islands of Sardinia and Corsica. In the Strait of Messina are the once-dreaded whirlpool *Charybdis* and the rock *Scylla*.

ISLANDS.—The three largest Italian islands are Sicily, Sardinia, and Corsica—the last-named of which belongs politically to France. The smaller islands are Malta, Gozo, Comino, the Lipari Islands, Elba, Caprera, Ischia, Capri, Pantellaria, and several others of less note lying near the western coasts of the peninsula. The Maltese Islands belong to Great Britain.

1. Sicily, the largest island in the Mediterranean, is about 180 miles long and 120 miles broad, and has an area of 11,290 square miles. Its shape is triangular, and its surface is extremely uneven. The principal mountain range runs across the northern part of the island and gives off a lateral ridge which terminates in Cape Passaro. The famous volcano, *Mount Etna*, is a detached mass rising from the north-east corner of the plain of Catania to the height of 10,874 feet above the sea. The climate is warm and delightful; and the soil, in the lower plains and valleys, is very fertile, producing abundance of fruits and grain. Various minerals and metals are also found, and marble, sulphur, &c., are largely exported. Relatively to its size, Sicily has a dense population—about 34 millions, or 288 per square mile.

2. Sardinia, the second largest island in the Mediterraneau, has an area of 9,399 square miles. Its surface is mountainous; the highest point of the Monte del Gennargentu reaches the height of about 6,000 feet. Its extremely fertile plains and valleys are well watered by numerous rivers, and its natural productions are varied and valuable. The population scarcely exceeds threequarters of a million. The capital, *Cagliari*, an important port on the south coast, and *Sassari*, the chief town in the northern part of the island, have each above 80,000 inhabitants.

3. Corsica, though an Italian island, belongs to France (see pp. 88 and 94).

4. Malta, with the two smaller adjacent islands of Gozo and Comino, has belonged to England since the year 1800. Malta has 166,000 inhabitants.

Its chief town is Valletta, a busy seat of trade and an important naval station.¹

5. The Lipari Isles, off the north coast of Sicily, are of volcanic origin, and still contain the two active volcances of Stromboli and Vulcano.

6. Ischia, a small island at the entrance of the Gulf of Naples, was in 1881, and again in 1883, the scene of most destructive earthquakes. In the former over 200, and in the latter 2,450, lives were lost, and hundreds of houses and other buildings destroyed.

7. **Capri** is famous as being the place where the Roman emperor, Tiberius, passed the last ten years of his life, and also as being the favourite retreat of Augustus; **Elba**, as the place of Napoleon's exile; and **Caprera**, as the home of Garibaldi, the liberator of Italy.

MOUNTAINS.—A large portion of Italy is mountainous. The principal mountains are the *Alps*, which encircle the north of Italy, forming its frontier on the side of France, Switzerland, and Germany, and the *Apennines*, which run through the length of the peninsula, branching off from the Alps near the head of the Gulf of Genoa.

1. The Alps have been already described under Switzerland. All the higher portions of the Alps are covered with perpetual snow; but the glacier-region is chiefly upon their northern declivities, beyond the Italian limits. *Mont Blanc*, 15,781 feet, the highest of the Alps, is on the border-line of Italy and France. *Monte Rosa*, 15,158 feet, is on that of Italy and Switzerland.

2. The Apennines are much less elevated than the Alps, and occupy about two-thirds of peninsular Italy. The highest points are Monte Cimone, 6,975 feet, in the Northern Apennines; Monte Corno or Gran Sasso d'Italia, "the Great Rock of Italy," 9,521 feet, in the Central or Neapolitan Apennines; and Monte Amara, in the Southern Apennines, 9,000 feet.

VOLCANOES.—Mount Vesurius (3,932 feet), the only active volcano upon the mainland of Europe, is on the west side of Italy, near the shores of the Bay of Naples. Mount Etna, on the island of Sicily, and also an active volcano, is of much more considerable height, reaching 10,874 feet above the sea. Stromboli, one of the Lipari Islands, is a volcano in constant activity.

In the first known eruption of Vesuvius (a.D. 69) the cities of *Herculaneum* and *Pompeii* were so completely covered by lava and ashes that their very site long remained unknown. Mount Etna is the largest and loftiest volcano in Europe, and, since the year 476, has been in eruption about sixty times. The whole of the south of Italy is especially subject to volcanic disturbances. In the earthquake of 1783, over 300 towns and villages were destroyed, and in that of 1857 over 10,000 persons perished. The earthquakes of 1881 and 1883 at Ischia were most destructive.

PLAINS.—The largest is the *Plain of Lombardy*, which includes the northern part of Italy between the Alps and the Apennines. It is watered by the rivers Po and Adige, with their numerous tributaries, and is one of the most fertile regions of Europe. Less extensive plains border the eastern and western coasts of the Italian peninsula between the Apennines and the sea.

RIVERS.—With a few exceptions, the rivers of Italy are of comparatively little importance in a merely geographical sense, though of great historical fame. In Italy, as in Greece and other lands,

^{1.} For full accounts of Malta and other British possessions see "The Advanced Class-Book of Modern Geography." (London: George Philip & Son).

many localities which in themselves claim little regard, acquire interest from their association with the great events of a former age.¹

The chief rivers of Italy are the Po and Adige, flowing into the Adriatic; and the Arno and Tiber, flowing into the Mediterranean. (1.) The Po rises in Mont Viso, on the borders between France and Italy, and has a total *length* of nearly 450 miles, of which 280 miles are navigable. Its chief tributaries are the *Ticino*, from Lake Maggiore; the *Adda*, from Lake Como; the *Oglio*, from Lake Iseo; and the *Mincio*, from Lake Garda. The immense quantities of débris brought down from the mountains by the Po and its tributaries have added much land to its delta, and have raised its bed so much that its surface is actually higher than the general level of the surrounding districts,² which are protected from inundation by vast embankments. (2.) The Adige rises in the Rhætian Alps, and flows into the Gulf of Venice after a course of 250 miles. (3.) The Arno rises in the Apennines, and falls into the Ligurian Sea, after a course of 150 miles through one of the loveliest and most renowned parts of Italy. The upper Arno is connected by a canal with (4) the river Tiber, which is, historically, the most famous river in Europe. It flows by Rome, once the "mistress of the world," and has a total course of 210 miles.

LAKES.—The principal Italian lakes are Maggiore, Lugano, Como, and Garda, situated among the southern valleys of the Alps; with *Perugia*, Bolsena, and Bracciano, in the middle portion of the peninsula. Albano and Nemi are smaller lakes, a few miles south of Rome.

Lake Maggiore (152 square miles), is one of the prettiest of the Alpine lakes. Off its western shores are the beautiful Borromean islands. Lake Como (66 square miles) lies at an elevation of 684 feet above the sea, and is by far the most picturesque and sublime. The scenery of Lake Garda (183 square miles) and Lake Lugano is fine, but inferior to that of Como and Maggiore. The lakes of Central Italy generally occupy the craters of old volcances, and consequently are circular or oval in shape. They are smaller than the Alpine lakes, but two of them. Bolsena and Albano, are hardly less beautiful.

Lake Maggiore is drained by the river Ticino; Lugano, by the Tress; Como, by the Adda; and Garda, by the Mincio. The lakes of Perugia and Albano are drained by artificial canals.

CLIMATE.—The climate of Italy is warm, as is the case with all the countries that border upon the Mediterranean. It is also, for the most part, dry and healthy. In particular parts of Italy, however, the air is very unhealthy, especially at some seasons of the year. This is the case in the low coast district of Tuscany, and in certain parts of the Roman territory, to the south and west of the city of Rome.³

PRODUCTIONS.—The vegetation of Italy is rich and luxuriant, in a degree which greatly surpasses that of countries that lie beneath a more northern sky. A rich evergreen foliage clothes the sides of the hills, and the plains are covered with the vine, the olive, the fig. and the mulberry, besides yielding abundant crops of the finest wheat and other corn. In mineral produce Italy is chiefly distinguished for

try through which it flows. At Ferrara the stretes are actually 30 feet below the surface of the river. At its mouth the formation of land has been such that the old Roman scaport of Adria (whence the name Adriatic Sea) is now many miles inland. 3. The *walaria*, emanating from these pesti-lential marshes, and the strosco, a hot stiffing wind from Africa, are the great drawbacks to the climate of Italy.

^{1.} The stream of the Rubicon—in ancient times the limit between Roman Italy and the province of Cisalpine Gaul—is an example of this. It is believed to correspond to a little torrent now called the Finnecino—one of a vast number of mountain torrents that descend from the eastern slope of the Apennines. The Finnecino enters the Adriatic in lat. 4% 11'. 2. In its lower course the surface of the Po is several feet above the general level of the coun-

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the sulphur supplied by Sicily, and the iron worked in the island of Elba. Marbles and building-stones of the finest quality abound throughout the country.

Among the *wild animals*, the lynx, chamois, and wolf are still found in the Alps, and the created porcupine and wild boar in the south. The *fisheries* around the coast are valuable. The finest marble is found near Carrara in the Appennines.

INHABITANTS.—Italy, one of the most densely-peopled countries of Europe, contains upwards of 30 million inhabitants, equivalent to about 270 to the square mile, or about half the density in England.

Race and Language.—Although the modern inhabitants of Italy are, in appearance, manners, and language a distinct nation, yet they have descended from numerous and widely-different races, such as the Ligurians, Umbrians, Etruscans, Greeks, Romans, Goths, Franks, Longobards, &c. The Italian language is derived from the Latin. Of the various dialects, the Tuscan only is pure.¹

INDUSTRIES.—The industry of Italy is both varied and considerable, but it is, on the whole, an agricultural rather than a manufacturing country. Yet there are extensive manufactures in some parts of Italy, and the amount of its foreign commerce is very large.

Wheat, maize, olive-oil, silk, straw-plait, and wines are among the productions of Italian industry. The culture of the vine, the olive, and the mulberry is pursued, on a scale of greater or less magnitude, throughout the country. Lombardy is especially distinguished for the mulberry, which is reared for the purpose of supplying the food of the silkworm. Tuscany is more particularly noted for its olive-oil, and also for its straw hats and straw-plait. The north of Italy—Lombardy, Piedmont,^{*} and the Genoese provinces—constitutes its most manufacturing portion. The silks and velvets of Turin and Genoa rival those of France.

Commerce.—The total imports, including goods and produce in transit, amount to over 524 millions sterling a year, while the total **exports** do not now exceed 35 millions a year. 60 per cent. of the imports arrive by sea, and 50 per cent. of the exports are despatched by land. The mercantile namy of Italy consists of about 6,500 sailing vessels, and 290 steamers.

The chief *imports* into Italy are grain and wheat, raw cotton and cotton. goods, coal, silk and silk goods, wool and woollen goods, iron and machinery, fish, timber, sugar, coffee, &c.

The principal exports are raw silk and silk manufactures, olive-oil, wines, fresh fruit, sulphur, hemp and flax, coral goods, eggs, lead and zinc ore, &c.

Ports.-The six great ports of Italy are Genoa, Leghorn, Naples, Messina, Palermo, and Venice.

Internal Communication.—There are good roads in Lombardy and Sardinia, but in Central and Southern Italy they are very defective, the best being the old Roman highways. There are about 8,000 miles of railway open for traffic in the kingdom. The completion of the great Alpine tunnels has facilitated communication with the countries of Central and Western Europe. By the Mont Cenis Tunnel the railway system of Italy communicates with that of France, and by the line over the Brenner Pass with that of Austria. The St. Gothard Tunnel links the railways of Italy to those of Switzerland and Germany.

1. Dante and Boccaccio were Tuscans.

2. Piedmont, from the French pied, foot, and. mont, a mountain. **GOVERNMENT.**—The kingdom of Italy is a constitutional monarchy, the legislative power being shared between the sovereign and a Parliament of two Chambers.

The upper Chamber, the Senate, is composed of members of the royal family and eminent men recommended by the king; and the lower one, the Chamber of Deputies, is composed of 508 members elected by the people.

For a long period, in consequence of the enormous expenditure on the army and navy, the annual **Expenditure** has exceeded the **Revenue** (which amounts to about 78 millions sterling), and the **Public Debt** now amounts to about 529 millions.

Military service is compulsory. The Regular Army, on a peace footing, includes about 265,000 men, but in war time the movable and local Militia brings up the total strength to over 24 millions of trained men. The **Italian** Navy, which is one of the most powerful in the world, consists of 270 war vessels, manned by about 19,000 men. Four of the ironclads (each of which cost over a million sterling) carry four 100-ton guns each, and are the most powerful men-of-war afloat. The chief naval and military port of Italy is NAPLES.

Education.—Until recent years, the lower classes of Italy were entirely illiterate, and even now the great majority of the adult population are unable to read or write. Elementary education, however, is being rapidly extended, and public government schools are now found in all parts of the kingdom. Higher education is well provided for, there being no less than twenty-one universities, eleven of which were in existence previous to 1450.

The upper classes of Italy are, and always have been, highly educated, and in the Middle Ages the arts and literature were especially cultivated. Among the great men whom Italy has produced we may note Raphael, Michael Angelo, Dante, and Canova. The fine arts are still highly esteemed, and there are important schools of music, painting, sculpture, &c., at Rome, Florence, Milan, Bologna, and other towns.

Religion.—Roman Catholicism is the State Religion of Italy, and almost all the Italians are Roman Catholics. There are only 62,000 Protestants, and about 38,000 Jews.

... Previous to the year 1860, Italy was divided politically into several States—nine in number. These were the Kingdom of Sardinia, the Kingdom of Naples and the Two Sicilies, the Lombardo-Venetian Kingdom (part of the Austrian Empire), the States of the Church, the Grand Duchy of Tuscany, the Duchy of Parma, the Duchy of Modena, the Republic of San Marino, and the Principality of Monaco. The three first named of these were the most considerable; the two last mentioned were insignificant in point of size.

The public events of the years 1859-60 resulted in the union of the greatly larger portion of Italy under a single sovereignty. Lombardy, by aid of the arms of France, was transferred from the dominion of Austria to the constitutional rule of the King of Sardinia. The insurgent populations of Tuscany, Parma, Modena, and the larger part of the then Papal States, expelled their deservedly unpopular rulers, and added themselves to the subjects of the Sardinian monarchy. The Neapolitan provinces (including the whole of Southern Italy), with the neighbouring island of Sicily, were roused to action by the patriot soldier Garibaldi, and, with the acceptance of their profered union, the title of King of Sardinia was exchanged for that of "King of Italy."

The kingdom of Italy thus constituted included six-sevenths of the entire country. Two portions of Italy, however, were still wanting to its completeness, viz., the Venetian and the Roman territories. The year 1866 witnessed the enforced relinquishment by Austria of her dominion over Venice, which, with Lombardy, was then made Italian in a political, as well as in a physical, sense. Rome, with a small adjacent territory, a fraction of the former "States ITALY.

of the Church," remained under the temporal sovereignty of the Pope until 1870, when the losses sustained by France in the war which she had provoked with Germany led to the final withdrawal of the French army (by which the Papal dominion had been sustained), and to the union of all Italy under a single ruler.

Savoy and Nice, previously part of the Sardinian monarchy, were in 1860 transferred to the rule of France, and the insignificant territory of Monaco fell, in virtue of the change, within the French border. The little town of San Marino, with a small adjacent tract (situated between the Apennines and the Adriatic), was allowed to retain its nominal independence.

DIVISIONS.—The kingdom of Italy is divided into 69 Provinces. which are named after the chief town in each. The old Territorial Divisions, or Compartimenti, 16 in number, though not now officially recognised, are better known. Four of these historic divisions are in Central Italy, five in the Northern, and five in the Southern part of the Peninsula, while Insular Italy includes two of them.

I. NORTHERN ITALY.

NORTHERN ITALY includes five of the old territorial divisions, namely, Piedmont, Liguria, Lombardy, Venetia, and Emilia. Pied-mont includes the western, Lombardy the central, and Venetia the eastern part of the great plain of Northern Italy.¹ Emilia includes that part of the plain which lies between the Po and the Apennines: and Liguria, or the Eastern Riviera, extends along the coast, south of Piedmont and west of Emilia.

TURIN or Torino (230), the chief city of Piedmont (and, prior to 1864, the capital for a time of the Italian kingdom), stands on the left bank of the river Po. It has important silk, woollen, and cotton manufactures, and is the great railway centre of North-Western Italy, and communicates with France through the Mont Cenis Tunnel and along the Mediterranean seaboard.

Alessandria (31), a strongly-fortified town, to the south-east of Turin, is on the river Tanaro, an affluent of the Po. Marengo, the scene of Napoleon's victory over the Austrians in 1800, is near Alessandria. Genoa (140), one of the most important among the great cities of Italy and, in former times, the rival of Venice in commerce and dominion, lies on the Mediterranean coast, at the head of the gulf called by its name. Spezia (26), to the south-east of Genoa, was formerly the chief naval station of Italy, and is still an important seaport.

MILAN (295), in the centre of the Lombard plain, and the former capital of Austrian Italy, is noted for its magnificent cathedral and its marble palaces. It stands beside the river Olona, one of the many affluents of the Po, and is the chief railway centre of the northern plain, communicating with Genoa and the Mediterranean seaboard on the south, and, through the St. Gothard Tunnel, with Switzerland and Germany on the north. It is the chief centre of the *silk* manufacture of Northern Italy.

Pavia (30), on the river Ticino, near its junction with the Po, is to the south of Milan. Numerous large cities, many of them famous in the records

^{1.} The plains of Northern Italy, like those of the earlier campaigns of Napoleon I. Palestro, the Low Countries, have been the frequent Magesta, and Solferiso hare a like repute in buttlefield of nations, and abound in localities of connection with the operations of Napoleon III., Arcola are among the places distinguished in

of past ages, as well as possessed of present importance, lie within this part of Italy or within the adjoining Venetian province—among them Venice, Bergamo, Brescia, Cremona, Mantua, Verona, and many others.

VENICE or **Venezia** (130), stands on the shore of the Adriatic, in the midst of lagoons, in a situation well fitted for commanding, as it did in former ages, the commerce of the neighbouring waters. Canals divide its different quarters, but the city itself is accessible by the railway, which, crossing the lagoons, connects it with Milan and other places in Northern Italy, and with Florence and Rome to the south. Venice is one of the most picturesque cities in the world; and though no longer so important as it once was, the "Queen of the Adriatic" is still a busy port, with extensive *shipbuilding* yards and considerable manufactures of *glass* and *jevellery*.

Verona (61) is to the west of Venice, on the river Adige, and is an important fortress, as well as a great commercial city. Padua (47) and Vicenza (28) lie between Venice and Verona. Mantua, the birthplace of Virgil, is on the river Mincio, which, issuing from the Lago di Garda, joins the Po.

EMILIA comprehends the territory of the Romagna, which, prior to 1859, formed part of the Papal dominions, together with the former Duchies of Parma and Modena. BOLOGNA (104), the chief city of this part of Italy, lies in the plain which stretches between the Apennines and the course of the Po.

Ferrara (29) is near the right bank of the Po. Parma (45) and Modena (31) are also situated within the plain between the Apennines and the Po—the former on the banks of a river called by its name.

II. CENTRAL ITALY.

CENTRAL ITALY includes the Roman Territory, Tuscany, the Marches, and Umbria. **Tuscany** lies on the western, and the **Marches** on the eastern, side of the Apennines; **Umbria** lies between them. **Roma**, or the Roman Territory, extends along the western coast to the south of Tuscany.

ROME (273), the "Eternal City," the ancient "mistress of the world," and, since 1870, the capital of the Kingdom of Italy, stands on the banks of the Tiber, 18 miles above its entrance into the Mediterranean. By far the larger portion of the city is on the left bank of the river; that portion, however, which contains the *Cathedral of St. Peter* and the *Vatican Palace* (the residence of the Pope) is on the right bank. This latter, which is distinguished as the "Leonine City,"¹ is reserved for the purposes of the Papal Court.

The area included within modern Rome is marked by the walls of the ancient city, which are still standing, but great portions of the included space is a mere wilderness of ruins. The *Coliseum*, which is beyond the populated portion of the city, is the most imposing amongst the many magnificent works of ancient art which belong to Rome.

Civita Vecchia, forty miles to the north-west of Rome, serves as the port of that city.

^{1.} From Leo X., who filled the Papal throne in (the completion of St. Peter's, with other publicthe early part of the 16th century, and by whom (works, was accomplished.

FLORENCE or **Firenze** (135), the capital of Tuscany, was for some time (1864-70) the political, as it has always been the intellectual, capital of Italy. Florence, "The Beautiful," perhaps the most enchanting of Italian cities, is situated, amidst the most charming scenery, on the banks of the river Arno, and is famous for its rich collections of works of art, and as the birthplace or residence of many great men, among them Dante, Michael Angelo, Americo Vespucci, Galileo, and Sawonarola. It is also a great industrial centre, and is in direct communication by rail with all the chief cities of Northern and Peninsular Italy. Silk, jewellery and works of art are the chief industrial products of the modern Florentines.

Leghorn or Livorno (80), on the coast of Tuscany, is the port of Florence, and one of the chief seats of Italian commerce in *corn*, *wine*, *olive oil*, and *straw plait*. Pisa (38), on the river Arno a few miles above its mouth, where Galileo, the famous astronomer, was born in 1564, has a great name in mediæval history, and is famed for its *leaning tower*, 170 feet high, and 13 feet off the perpendicular. Ancona (31) is a military station and trading centre on the Adriatic. Near Carrara are the famous *marble* quarries, whence the finest statuary marble in the world is obtained. The little Republic of San Marino is on the northern border of the Marches.

The province of UMBRIA, lying between Tuscany and the Marches, is an inland region. Perugia (20), its chief city, is near the right bank of the Tiber, within the upper portion of that river's course.

III. SOUTHERN ITALY.

SOUTHERN ITALY includes the Campania, Abruzzi and Molise, Apulia, Basilicata, and Calabria. The Campania includes the district between the Apennines and the western coast; the Abruzzi and Molise division lies between the "back-bone of Italy" and the Adriatic coast. Apulia includes the extreme south-eastern extension of the peninsula, and Calabria, the south-western "limb." Basilicata lies between these two divisions.

NAPLES or Napoli (463), the capital of the former Kingdom of Naples and the Two Sicilies, is the largest city of Italy. It lies on the shore of the beautiful Bay of Naples, only a few miles distant from the foot of Mount Vesuvius. The disinterred cities of *Pompeii* and *Herculaneum*, buried eighteen centuries ago (A.D. 79), under the ashes ejected from the mountain, are beside the shore of the bay. Naples is the chief military and naval station of Italy, and is also an important centre of commerce.

Few of the other cities of Southern Italy are of any considerable size. Among the more noteworthy are Foggia, Bari, Salerno, Gaeta, Capua, Tarento (the ancient *Tarentum*), and Brindisi (the ancient *Brundusium*). Gaeta and Salerno are on the Mediterranean coast; Bart and Brindisi¹ are on the Adriatic shore; and **Taranto** is at the head of the gulf called by its name. Foggia and Capua are inland.

IV. INSULAR ITALY.

INSULAR ITALY includes the islands of Sicily and Sardinia. Sicily is, in parts, as fertile and densely-peopled as the northern plains, but Sardinia is neither as populous nor as advanced as the other provinces of Italy.

^{1.} Brindisi is an important packet station on the direct route to India via the Sues Canal and the Red Sea.

PALERMO (206), the largest city of Sicily, is on the north coast of the island. Messina (78) is at its eastern extremity, beside the strait which bears its name.

Of the other towns of Sicily, Catania lies at the foot of Mount Etna, on the east coast ; Siracusa (the ancient Syracuse) is on the same coast, to the southward : Trapani and Marsala are seaports at the western extremity of the island, the latter is famous for its wines.

SABDINIA is neither as populous nor as advanced as the other provinces of Italy. CAGLIARI (36), the chief city of Sardinia, lies at the head of a bay near the southern extremity of the island. Sassari (32) is a thriving town near the north-western coast. Both Cagliari and Sassari are university towns.

The Colonies and Dependencies of Italy are all on the eastern side of Africa.

They include Massowa and Assab Bay and the adjoining coast territory on the Red Sea, which together form the province of *Britrea*; the Sultanate of Obbia, on the Somali Coast, and the rest of this coast to the mouth of the Juba River. The whole of Abyssinia and Shoa are included in the Italian "sphere of influence," and are virtually Italian Protectorates.

QUESTIONS ON ITALY.

1. How is Italy bounded? What are its dimen-

1. How is a say boundary, and straits which below to the Italia, bays, and straits which below to the Italian coasts, may be a strait which the Lipart Islands, Elba, and Malta? Point to

each on the map. 4. To what nation does Malta belong? What is its chief town called?

5. What mountains belong to Italy? Which among them are active volcances, and where are they situated?

are they situated? 6. Describe briefly the chief rivers of Italy. 7. Enumerate the principal lakes. Which of the number belong to the Alpine region? Which

the number belong to the Alpine region? Which to Central Haly? 8. What kind of climate has Italy? What parts of the country exhibit an exception to its general attributes in this regard? 9. Mention some of the chief productions of Italy in the regetable and mineral kingdoms. 10. For what articles of industrial produce is Italy chiefly noted? Which portion of the coun-try is especially distinguished for its silk? 11. What are the means of inter-communica-tion?

tion?

12. Under what form of government is Italy? 13. Give a few particulars relative to (a) edu-cation and (b) religion. 14. Into what States was Italy formerly divided?

14. Into what States was Italy formerly divided? Point out their places on the map. 16. Name the chief towns, respectively, of Pledmont, Sardinia, Tuncany, and Emilia. 18. What city forms the capital of the kingdom of Italy, and how is it situated? 17. Foint to the following upon the map:--Venice, Genos, Spezzia, Leghorn, Civita Vecchis, and Ancona. 13. On what rivers are Pavia, Verona, Mantan, Turin, Florence, Pisa, and Rome? 19. Where are the provinces of the Romagna and Umbria! What are the names of their chief cities?

chief citles? 20. In what parts of Italy are Bologna, Milan, Ferrara, San Marino, Taranto, and Brindisi? 21. In what parts of Italy are Gasta, Salerno, Messina, Catania, Siracosa, and Marsala? 22. What cities of Italy are particularly dis-tinguished for their works of art and their re-

mains of antiquity? 23. Where are the Colonies and Dependencies of Italy? Name them.

SPAIN.

SPAIN is an extensive country in the south-west of Europe. It includes the greater part of a peninsula which lies between the Mediterranean Sea, the Atlantic Ocean, and the Bay of Biscay. The western and smaller portion of this peninsula forms the Kingdom of Portugal.

BOUNDARIES.—Spain is bounded on the north by France and the Bay of Biscay; on the west, by the Atlantic Ocean and the kingdom of Portugal; on the south-west, by the Atlantic; on the south and east, by the Mediterranean Sea.

EXTENT.—In point of size, Spain is more than three times larger than England and Wales, and nearly as large as France—its area being 191,000 square miles, or including the Canary and Balearic Islands and the "Presidios" (Ceuta, &c.), in North Africa, 197,000 square miles.

A straight line from Cape Tarifa, on the south, to the mouth of the river Bidassoa, on the French frontier, measures 550 miles. The distance between the extreme westerly point, Cape Finisterre, and the most easterly, Cape Creuse, is 640 miles.

COASTS.—The coast-line of Spain is much less varied than the coasts of Italy or Greece, and the Spanish Peninsula has a more solid shape than belongs to either of those countries. The external contour of the land is less indented, and its central parts are, consequently, further removed from the sea than is the case in either the Italian or the Grecian peninsulas.

The coast-line of Spain is 1,317 miles in length, of which 605 miles are formed by the Atlantic and 712 miles by the Mediterranean.

Capes.—The principal Capes are:—Capes Ortegal and Finisterre,¹ both on the north-west coast of Spain, on the side of the Atlantic; Cape Tarifa, on the northern side of the Strait of Gibraltar, the most southwardly point of the European continent; Cape Trafalgar, a short distance to the north-west of Cape Tarifa, on the Atlantic coast; Europa Point, the extreme southern point of the Rock of Gibraltar;² and Cape Creuse, on the Mediterranean coast, at the eastern extremity of the Pyrenees.

ISLANDS.—The *Balearic Islands*,^{*} in the Mediterranean, and the *Canaries*,^{*} in the Atlantic Ocean off the coast of Africa, belong to Spain. Both the Balearic and Canary Isles are politically considered part of the home country, and form two of the modern provinces into which the kingdom is divided.

1. The Balearic Islands are five in number, viz., Majorca, Minorca, Iviza, Formentera, and Cabrera. *Population*, 312,000. Majorca has an area of 1,360 square miles, and Minorca, 280 square miles. The former is hilly, but the latter is, for the most part, level. All the islands are generally fertile, and produce corn and fruit. The chief towns are *Palma* (60), the capital, *Ivisa*, and *Mahon*.

2. The **Canary Islands** are situated in the Atlantic Ocean, about 60 miles off the west coast of Africa. *Population*, about 300,000. The largest islands are Teneriffo and Gran Canaria. On the north-east side of the latter is *Gran Palmas*, the capital of the group. The Canaries are mountainous and volcanic, and culminate in the volcano *Pico de Teyde*, better known as the "Peak of Teneriffe," in Teneriffe, 12,185 feet above the sea-level. The last eruption took place in 1798.

MOUNTAINS.—Spain is crossed by several mountain chains, which stretch through the country in the direction of east and west.

1. Finisterre, Lat. finis, the end, and terra,	 Balearie, Gr. balleo, I throw: the natives
land. Of. our Land's End.	were formerly famous for their skill in "sling-
2. Storaltar. Jobal Tarik. Tarik's mountain.	ing." Canaries, dog islands, Lat. cowis, a dog.
Tarik, one of the Moorish chiefs, built a fortress on the rock, hence its name.	4 Canaries, dog islands, Lat. canis, a dog.

These are the Pyrenees, the Cantabrian Mountains, the Mountains of Castile, the Mountains of Toledo, the Sierra¹ Morena, and the Sierra Nevada

1. The Pyrenees are on the border of France and Spain. They have an average elevation of 8,000 feet, but a score of summits rise 2,000 feet above The highest point is Pic de Nethou or Maladetta, 11,421 feet.

2. The Cantabrian Mountains extend westward from the Pyrenees along the shores of the Bay of Biscay, and terminate in Cape Finisterre.

3. The chains of the Castilian Mountains, the Mountains of Toledo, and the Sierra Morena are in the interior of Spain. Their direction is best marked out by observing on the map the different river basins which they divide. Thus the Mountains of Castile separate the basins of the Douro and the Tagus ; the Mountains of Toledo lie between the Tagus and the Guadiana; and the Sierra Morena, between the Guadiana and the Guadalquivir.

4. The interior of Spain, from the Cantabrian Mountains to the chain of the Sierra Morena, forms a high tableland, which has an elevation of 2,000 feet above the sea. Many parts of this tableland have an arid surface.

5. The Sierra Nevada are in the south of Spain, near the Mediterranean coast. The culminating point is *Mulhacen*, which attains an elevation of 11,151 feet, and is the highest summit in the peninsula, south of the Pyrenees.

RIVERS.—The rivers of the Spanish peninsula have the same general direction as its mountain chains, that is, east and west. They are the Minho, Douro, Tagus, Guadiana, and Guadalquivir, all of which flow west, and discharge into the Atlantic; with the Ebro. Jucar, and Segura, which have eastwardly courses and enter the Mediterranean. The Minho, in the lower part of its course, forms the boundary between Spain and Portugal.

1. The Douro⁵ drains north central Spain, and has a course of 460 miles, only 75 of which (within Portugal) are navigable. Its basin (89,000 square miles in area) is bounded on the north by the Asturian Pyrenees, and on the south by the Sierra Guadarrama.

2. The **Tagus** (510 miles long) is the longest river of the peninsula: 190 miles of its lower course is in Portugal. It drains that portion of the central tableland that lies between the Castilian Sierras and the Mountains of Toledo. A part of its lower course only is navigable, and its estuary, which forms a fine harbour, varies from 2 to 7 miles in width.

3. The Guadiana, at a distance of 10 miles from its source, disappears, and for 14 miles flows underground, re-emerging in the two small lakes called Los Ojos de la Guadiana.³ This river drains the tract lying between the Mountains of Toledo and the Sierra Morena, but is only navigable for the last 40 miles of its course.

4. The Guadalquivir + drains the plain between the Sierra Morena and Sierra Nevada, and is navigable below Cordova. Total length, 290 miles.

5. The Ebro (420 miles long) drains north-eastern Spain. Its current is rapid and its navigation consequently difficult.

CLIMATE.—The climate of Spain exhibits great varieties. The north is temperate; the middle parts are liable to great extremes of heat and cold—parched in summer by intense heat, and piercingly cold in winter; the south and south-east are hot, like the countries of Southern Europe in general.

2. Dours, cf. Welah, der, water. 8. i.s., the Eyes of the Guadiana. 4. Guadalquivir, Arabic, wady-el-keber, the "great river."

^{1.} Bierra, usually supposed to be derived from the Lat. serve, a saw, in allusion to the notched or saw-like appearance of the order of the ridges so named. But it is more probable that the term is connected with, if not directly derived from, the Arabic serve, meaning waste land.

SPAIN.

The extremes of temperature which belong to Central Spain result from its elevated and exposed character. Madrid, which stands at an elevation of 2,000 feet above the sea, is at once among the hottest and coldest localities in Europe. In many parts of the interior plateau, the rains are scanty and irregular.

PRODUCTIONS.—The natural productions of Spain are varied and valuable, but the deficiency of means of communication has hitherto hindered the development of its vegetable and mineral wealth.

1. The domestic animals include sheep (merino), goats, mules, and camels. Among the wild animals the wolf, bear, and chamois are found in the Pyrenees, the wild bull in Andalusia, and the ape on the rock of Gibraltar.

2. The vegetation is as various as the climate. In the north, on the shores of the Bay of Biscay, the fruits common to the south of England flourish. In the south and south-east, along the Mediterranean coasts, the foliage is evergreen, and the fruits are such as belong to southern lands. The orange, lemon, citron, and fig are here abundant; the sugarcame thrives, and the rich foliage of the banana and other tropical fruits is seen beside the groves of myrtle, oleander, and Indian fig.

3. The mineral wealth of Spain is very great. The *quicksilver* mines of Almaden (on the north slope of the Sierra Morena) are among the richest in the world. The *lead* mines are also of great value. Silver, iron, copper, zinc, and tin occur in various parts of Spain, and valuable marbles and building-stones abound.

INHABITANTS.—Spain is one of the least populous among European countries, its population being only $17\frac{1}{2}$ millions, a smaller number in proportion to its size than that of many other countries which are inferior in natural wealth, being on an average only 90 persons to the square mile.

There are fewer foreigners in Spain than in any other European countryonly 25,000 in all. The *Basques* number 440,000, and there are 60,000 *Morescoes* in the south, 50,000 *Gipsies*, and a small number of *Jews*.

Race and Language.—The Spaniards are the descendants of the old Celtic Iberians, largely intermingled, however, with Phœnician, Roman, Gothic, and Moorish elements. The Spanish language is of Latin origin, and was at one time much more like the Portuguese than at present. The *Basques* of the north-east are the descendants of the aboriginal Iberians, and still speak the old Celtic language.

INDUSTRIES.—The pursuits of industry are not generally flourishing in Spain, which country exhibits, in nearly every regard, a great decline from its condition at a former period. *Agriculture* is less an object of national pursuit than the rearing of sheep, immense numbers of which are bred upon the extensive pasture-grounds of the interior. The *silk manufacture* flourishes at Valencia and other places on the Mediterranean coast. Some *woollen* and *linen* fabrics are also made, and *leather* is extensively prepared. Spain, however, in not generally a manufacturing country.

Commerce.—The chief articles of produce which Spain exchanges for the manufactures of other lands are wines, fruits (raisins, oranges, figs, &c.), wool, salt, barilla, quicksilver, lead, and cobalt; with leather, olive oil, and cork-wood. The foreign trade carried on both with France and **England** is considerable. The sherry wines so largely consumed in the latter country are the produce of the south-west of Spain, in the vicinity of Cadiz.

The total value of the imports into, and exports from, Spain and her Colonies amounts to over 70 millions sterling a year—imports, 34 millions; exports, 355 millions sterling. The principal *ports* are Barcelona, the "Liverpool" of Spain, Cadiz, Seville, Valencia, Alicante, Cartagena, Malaga, Gijon, Bilbao, and Santander.

Internal Communication.—The numerous mountain chains render communication between the different parts of the country naturally difficult, and the roads are worse than those of any other European country. The larger towns in nearly all the provinces are now, however, connected by railways, of which over 6,000 miles are open for traffic.

GOVERNMENT.—The government of Spain is a constitutional monarchy; the executive resting in the King, and the power to make laws in the *Cortes*, or Parliament, with the King.

The Cortes is composed of the *Senate*, the members of which are nominated, or are senators by right, and the *Congress*, elected by the people. Both Houses of the Spanish Parliament are equal in authority.

No accounts of the actual revenue and expenditure of the kingdom have been issued in recent years. The Revenue and Expenditure are each supposed to amount to about 800 million pessetas or 80 millions sterling, while the Fublic Debt amounts to nearly 251 millions.

The **Army** numbers about 100,000 men on the peace footing, which can be raised in case of necessity to 870,000 men. The **Navy** consists of 230 war vessels, of which 7 are *ironclads*.

EDUCATION.—Until recently, the mass of the people were totally illiterate, and even now probably 60 per cent. cannot read. Higher education is provided for in 58 public colleges and 10 universities.

There are now about 80,000 public and private primary schools, but the instruction is very inefficient, and the teachers are wretchedly paid, the salaries averaging £10 to £20 a year! The total sum spent on primary education, in 1891, was about £100,000.

BELIGION.—The Spanish people, with the exception of about 30,000 Protestants, Jews, &c., are uniformly followers of the Church of Rome. Protestants are allowed to meet privately, but are forbidden to make any public announcement.

DIVISIONS and TOWNS.—The present division of Spain is into 49 provinces. But the older division into 13 provinces—some of them formerly separate kingdoms—is more generally followed; and (as in the like case of the earlier divisions of France) the names of these provinces are inseparably connected with the historic records of the country.

The following table shows the older Divisions of Spain, with their chief towns. The present "Provincias" (with three exceptions the Basque Provinces) bear the names of their respective chief towns.

Divisions.	Provinces and Chief Towns.	Divisions.	Provinces and Chief Towns.
New Castile . Old Castile .	Madrid, Toledo, Al- maden. Burgos, Valladolid.	Estremadura Andalusia	Badajoz, Merida. Seville, Cadiz, Jerez, Cordova, Granada.
Leon	Santander. Leon, Salamanca, Ciu- dad Rodrigo.	Murcia Aragon	Malaga, Almeria. Murcia, Cartagena. Saragossa, Teruel.
Asturias Galicia	Oviedo, Gijon. Corunna, Ferrol, Vigo, Santiago de Com- postella.	Navarre	Barcelona, Tarragona. Valencia, Alicante. Pamplona. Bilbao, Tolosa, Vitoria.

The Biscay Division includes the three Basque Provinces of Viscaya (capital, Bilbao), *Guipuzcoa* (Tolosa), *Alava* (Vitoria). The *Baleáres* Division includes the islands of **Majorca** (chief town, Palma), **Minorca** (Mahon), and **Iviza** (Iviza).

MADRID (472), the capital of Spain, lies in the centre of the peninsula, beside the stream of the Manzanares, a tributary of the Tagus, in the midst of an arid plain, which is upwards of 2,000 feet above the level of the sea. The royal palace of the Escorial, built by Philip II., is to the north-west of the capital, at the foot of the Mountains of Castile.

Toledo (15), an ancient city to the south-west of Madrid, is on the Tagus. Talavera, also on the Tagus, lower down its stream, is famous for the victory gained in 1809 by the British over the French army.

Burgos (31), the capital of Old Castile, is on the Arlanzon, one of the small tributaries of the Douro. Santander is a port on the Bay of Biscay.

Oviedo (43) is the capital of Asturias, and has Gijon for its port.

Bilbao (51) is the chief port of the Basque Provinces.

Valladolid (62), the chief city of Leon, and the former capital of the Spanish monarchy, is within the valley of the Douro, at the junction of the two smaller affluents of that river. Salamanca, once famous for its university, is on the river Tormes, which joins the Douro. Ciudad-Rodrigo is to the south-west, near the Portuguese frontier. Badajos, the chief city and fortress of Estremadura, is on the Guadiana, and closely adjoins the border-line between Spain and Portugal.

ANDALUSIA, the southwardly division of Spain, includes a greater number of large cities than any other portion of the kingdom. It was here that the Moors longest maintained their ground against the advancing tide of Christian warfare and conquest. Cordova, Seville, Granada, and Jaen, among the cities of Andalusia, were formerly the capitals of Moorish kingdoms; and the architectural glories of the Alhambra yet tell of the splendours amidst which the Moorish kings of Granada maintained their court.

Seville (143), now chiefly noted for its extensive trade in oranges, stands beside the river Guadalquivir. At the mouth of that stream is San Lucar, the port whence (in 1519) Magellan sailed on the first voyage of circumnavigation round the globe. Palos, a small port to the westward, at the mouth of the little river Tinto, is yet more noteworthy in the annals of discovery, as Columbus sailed thence, in 1492, on the great voyage in which he discovered the New World.

Cadiz (62), one of the chief scaports of Spain, is at the northern extremity of an island which immediately adjoins the Spanish coast. The town of Jerez de la Frontera or Xeres (62), whence the name of "sherry" is derived, is in the midst of the wine district, to the north-east of Cadiz. The name of Cape Trafalgar, to the south-east of Cadiz, recalls the memory of Nelson's great victory in 1805.

Cordova (56), greatly decayed from its former splendour, is on the Guadalquivir, in the middle portion of its course. Granada (73) stands in a beautiful plain at the northern foot of the Sierra Nevada, beside the little stream of the Darro, which falls into the Jenil, one of the chief affluents of the Guadalquivir. Malaga (134) is a flourishing port on the southern coast. Malaga and other towns in Andalusia suffered severely during the terrible earthquake of 1884.

The town of Murcia (98) is on the river Segura, on the eastern side of the kingdom. Cartagena (84) is on the coast of the same province. Alicante, also on the Mediterranean coast, is to the northward. Valencia (171), still further north, is a short distance inland; it has flourishing silk manufactures and extensive trade.

Barcelona (272), situated on the coast of Catalonia, commands the Mediterranean trade of Spain, and is the second city of the kingdom in amount of population. saragossa (92), the chief city of Aragon, on the river Ebro, is noteworthy for its memorable sieges in 1808-9, during the Peninsular war. Pampiona, in the Navarre, is a strong fortress, not far distant from the Pyrenees. San Sebastian, a strongly fortified port on the Bay of Biscay, near the French border, was stormed by the British in 1813, after a memorable siege.

Santiago, the chief city of Galicia, like many other of the cities of Spain, has greatly decayed from its former importance. Corunna and Ferrol, on the coast of this province, are at the opposite extremities of an extensive bay; but Vigo, on a fine bay further south, has of late outstripped them in conmercial importance.

COLONIES.—The present colonial possessions of Spain are but a small fragment of those she formerly owned. Of her immense possessions in America, the islands of Cuba and Porto Rico alone remain. The possessions still claimed by Spain in various parts of the world have, however, an *area* of over 400,000 square miles, and a *population* of 12 millions.

The Spanish Colonies include, besides the *Canary Islands*, the islands of Fernando Po and Annobon, off the West African coast; Cuba and Porto Rico, in the West Indies; the Philippine Islands and the Sulu Islands, in the East Indies; and the Marianne or Ladrone, Caroline, and Pelew Islands, in the Pacific Ocean. Ceuta, on the African coast, opposite Gibraltar, with Tetuan on the same line of coast, further to the east, together with Corisco Bay, and other small settlements on the coast of Lower Guinea, and the "Protectorate" over the Saharan Coast between Capes Bojador and Blanco—a coast-line of about 500 miles—also belong to Spain.

ANDORRA, a small republic in the eastern Pyrenees, has an area of about 175 square miles, and a *population* of 6,000.

The independence of this little State, which is under the joint protection of France and the Spanish Bishop of Urgel, was granted by the Emperor Charlemagne as an acknowledgment of the services rendered by its inhabitants during the wars with the Moors.

GIBRALTAR, in the extreme south of Spain, is a possession of the British Crown. It was captured by an English squadron in 1704, and has ever since been retained in British possession.

PORTUGAL.

The town of Gibraltar occupies the western declivity and base of a lofty rock, which advances a length of four miles into the sea. and terminates to the southward in Europa Point. A narrow and sandy isthmus con-nects this rock with the mainland of Spain. The natural strength of Gibraltar is increased by extensive fortifications, and a numerous garrison is maintained there. The position of Gibraltar, at the entrance of the Mediterranean, renders it of great importance as a naval station. The resident population numbers about 20,000, exclusive of the garrison of between 5,000 and 6,000 men.

PORTUGAL

PORTUGAL¹ is a small country in the south-west of Europe. It lies on the western side of the Spanish peninsula, and is thus the most westerly portion of continental Europe.

BOUNDARIES.—Portugal is bounded on the north and the east by Spain; and on the south and the west by the Atlantic Ocean.

The frontier-line towards Spain is mostly artificial, the only natural boundaries being portions of the courses of the Minho on the north, and the Douro, Tagus, and Guadiana² on the east.

EXTENT. -Portugal has an area of 34,600 square miles, or nearly three-fifths that of England and Wales, and less than one-sixth the size of Spain.

The greatest length, from north to south, is 360 miles. The mean breadth, from east to west, is 100 miles. Madeira³ and the Azores,⁴ which together have an area of 1,200 square miles, also belong to Portugal.

COASTS.—The coast-line of Portugal belongs wholly to the Atlantic, and measures about 500 miles, equivalent to 1 mile of coast to every 73 square miles of area. With the exception of the Bays of Lisbon and Setubal, the Portuguese coast is remarkably regular and unbroken, and, with one exception, deficient in good harbours.

1. Capes — The principal are Cape Roca⁵ and Cape St. Vincent. Cape Roca is the most westerly point of the European continent; Cape St. Vincent is its south-western point. Both are high and rocky, and form the seaward extremities of the Serra^e d'Estrella and Serra de Monchique (or Malhao) respectively.

2. Inlets.—It includes two fine bays, the Bay of Lisbon (a magnificent natural harbour formed by the estuary of the Tagus), and the Bay of Setubal. The latter is lined by vast salt marshes, beyond which stretches the extensive plain of Estremadura.

MOUNTAINS.—Portugal is, physically, a continuation of Spain. Its mountains consist of portions of the long chains which cross the Spanish peninsula from east to west, and terminate in the latter direction on the shores of the Atlantic.

The highest elevations of Portugal are found in the Serras situated between the Douro and the Tagus, of which the principal is the Serra d'Estrella (7.524

^{1.} Portugal, Lat. Portus Cale, "the port of Cale" (the modern Oporto) at the mouth of the Dours. The old name of the country was Lus-tania. From 1890 to 1840, Portugal was subject to Spain. 2. Guadiana. From the Arabic wady, river, and Assa, the ancient name.

⁴ Asores, Portuguese, acor, a hawk. When first discovered, hawks were very numerous in these islands, hence the name. 5. Boos, a rook; also called the Rock of Lisbon. 6. Berra is the Portuguese form. The Spanish equivalent is Sterra (see footnote, p. 162).

feet above the sea), a portion of the long chain which stretches across the peninsula from north-east to south-west and terminates in Cape Roca. The Spanish Mountains of Toledo are prolonged south through the province of Alemtejo. The southern coast of Portugal is bordered by the Serra Monchique, which terminates in Cape St. Vincent.

RIVERS.—The principal rivers of Portugal are the Minho, Douro, Mondego, Tagus, and Guadiana, all flowing into the Atlantic. Only one of the number, the *Mondego*, is wholly Portuguese. The four others have the larger portion of their courses in Spain.

The Minho forms part of the northern frontier of Portugal; the Douro, Tagus, and Guadiana form portions of its eastern boundary. The last 120 miles of the Douro are entirely within Portugal, of which it drains an area of 7,500 square miles, or about a fifth part of its total area. The Tagus is navigable to Albrantes, a distance of 90 miles from the sea; and its estuary, which varies in width from two to seven miles, forms the splendid Bay of Lisbon, one of the most magnificent natural harbours in the world. The Guadiana is navigable only for thirty miles from the sea. Owing to the broken nature of the country, the rivers are generally rapid and run in deep channels. They are, consequently, for the most part but little available for either navigation

CLIMATE.—The climate of Portugal is warm and equable. This latter quality is due to its maritime position. Lisbon, its capital, exhibits remarkably little variation of temperature throughout the year, and thus presents a remarkable contrast to Madrid, which is subject to great extremes of heat and cold.

Rainfall.—The district of Coimbra is one of the wettest places of Europe, the rainfall exceeding 200 inches annually. The annual rainfall at Madrid only amounts to ten inches. Snow falls on the bills north of the Tagus in winter, but it is never seen along the southern coast districts.

PRODUCTIONS.—The vegetable productions of Portugal resemble those of the south and south-east coasts of Spain. The vine and the olive, the orange, lemon, citron, almond, fig, and myrile abound. There are large forests of oak, chestnuts, and cork. The mineral resources of the country comprehend copper, lead, and numerous other metals, very few of them, however, being worked.

INHABITANTS.—Portugal contains upwards of 4½ million inhabitants, an average of 123 to the square mile, exclusive of the Azores and Madeira, which together have a population of 400,000.

Race and Language.—The Portuguese are of the same origin as the Spaniards, and speak a dialect of the same language, which, however, differs considerably from the present Spanish tongue. But, in spite of a common origin and similar languages, there is much antipathy between the Portuguese and the Spaniards.

INDUSTRIES.—Every branch of industry is in a backward condition, and the abundant natural resources which the country possesses are turned to comparatively little account.

The most important branches of labour are in connection with the wine trade. The *port wines*, so largely consumed in England and elsewhere, are derived from Oporto, at the mouth of the Douro, and are the produce of the wine-district of the Alto-Douro—that is, the upper portion of the river, within the Portuguese frontier.

PORTUGAL.

Portugal has few manufactures. Her foreign trade consists chiefly in the export of wines, with lemons, almonds, and other fruits. The average value of wine exported from Portugal to the United Kingdom alone is over £1,000,000.

Ports.-The principal are Lisbon, Oporto and Leixœs,¹ and Setubal.

Internal Communication. — The mountainous nature of the country and the wretchedly constructed roads greatly obstruct inland communication. There are, however, 1,334 miles of railway open for traffic.

GOVERNMENT.—The kingdom of Portugal is a hereditary and limited monarchy.

The legislative, and to some extent, the executive, power is vested in the **Cortes**, which is composed of two Chambers—the House of Peers, and the House of Commons.

The national **income** has for many years been considerably less than the **Expenditure**, which amounts to about $9\frac{1}{2}$ millions a year, while the **Public Debt** amounts to 137 millions sterling, or £30 per head of the population.

The Army, service in which is compulsory, numbers 32,000 men, exclusive of nearly 9,000 artillery and infantry employed in the colonies. The war strength is about 150,000 men. The Navy consists of 40 steamers (including one *ironclad*) and 16 sailing vessels, manned by about 3,500 men.

EDUCATION.—Public education is in a very backward state, although entirely under the control of a government Council of Edu-There is only one university, that of Coimbra (founded in cation. 1290), attended by nearly a thousand students.

Although the principle of compulsory attendance was adopted in 1844, the law has never been properly enforced, and consequently the percentage of children attending school is very low; but much progress has been made within the last few years.

Beligion.-The Roman Catholic religion is almost uniformly followed, but other modes of worship are tolerated. There are only about 500 Protestants, mostly foreigners, in the country.

DIVISIONS and TOWNS.—Portugal includes the following 6 provinces, which are divided for administrative purposes into 17 districts, named after the chief towns in each.

Provinces.	Districts and Chief Towns.
Estremadura,:	Lisbon, Santarem, Leiria.
Alemtejo,:	Portalegre, Evora, Beja.
Beira,	Aveiro, Vizeu, Coimbra, Guarda, Castello Branco.
Tras-os-Montes, .	Villa Real, Braganza.
Entre Douro e Minho, .	Vianna, Braga, Oporto.
Algarve,	Faro.

. The Azores and Madeira are also regarded as integral portions of the Kingdom.

Alemtejo, beyond the Tagus.
 Tras-os-Monites, beyond the mountains.
 Entre Douro = Minho, between the Douro and Minho.
 Algarre, Arabic, el gharò, the west.

^{1.} The new harbour at Leixœs, three miles to the north of Oporto, is the only place of refuge on the coast between Vigo and the port of Lisbon. 2. Estremadura, the extreme boundary.

LISBON¹ (250) and **Oporto** (105) are the only two great cities which Portugal contains, and divide between them nearly the whole of its commerce. Oporto is the chief seat of the wine trade, Lisbon that of the more general foreign trade.

Lisbon, the capital of Portugal, stands on the north side of the Tagus, upon the estuary which that river forms at its entrance into the sea. The mouth of the Tagus forms one of the finest of natural harbours. The climate of Lisbon is very healthy, and is much resorted to by invalids from the more northerly countries of Europe, especially those afflicted with pulmonary complaints. Oporto, the second city in the kingdom, is situated on the Douro, a short distance above its mouth.

Braga (20), Coimbra (18), and Setubal (15), come next in order of size.

Brags is the ecclesiastical capital of Portugal, and has also some manufactures. Coimbra, on the river Mondego (nearly midway between Oporto and Lisbon), is the seat of the only Portuguese university, founded in 1290. Setubal, or St. Ubes, is situated on a bay called by its name, to the south-east of Lisbon. Its chief trade consists in the export of salt, derived by evaporation from the adjacent shores.

... Vimiera, the scene of a victory gained by the English in 1808, is a small town to the northward of Lisbon; and Torres Vedrus, rendered famous by the well-known lines of defence constructed by Wellington in 1810, is in the same direction, nearer to the capital. Cape St. Vincent, in the south-west of Portugal, gives its name to the naval victory gained by the English in 1797.

Besides the seven divisions given in the table on the preceding page, the Azores and Madeira are considered parts of the home country, and, unlike the other colonial possessions of Portugal, are directly represented by deputies in the Cortes.

1. The **Azores** are situated in the Atlantic Ocean, due west from the coast of Portugal, and are reckoned to belong to this division of the globe, though too far distant from the shores of the mainland to be shown upon the maps of Europe. They consist of a group of nine islands, the largest of which is named St. Michael, and the next in size, Terceira. The total area is officially estimated at 966 square miles, and the *population* at 260,000. The island of St. Michael furnishes great numbers of oranges, which (with some corn) are the chief articles of export. The town of Angra (13), on Terceira, is the capital of the group. But *Ponte Delgada* (17), on the south side of St. Michael, is commercially far more important.

2. Madeira is a beautiful and fertile island in the Atlantic Ocean off the north-west coast of Africa, 290 square miles in area,³ and measuring 35 miles in the direction of its length. It is mountainous, and wholly of volcanic formation, consisting of a mass of basaltic rock. The highest point in the island reaches upwards of 6,000 feet above the sea. The *climate* of Madeira is particularly celebrated. The air is almost uniformly warm, exhibiting remarkably little variation in its temperature throughout the year. The vegetation is rich and luxuriant in the extreme, the fruits and evergreens of southern Europe growing over all the moderately-elevated portions

^{1.} Lisbon was almost entirely destroyed by the | 2. About twice the size of the Isle of Wight. earthquake of 1755, when 60,000 persons perished.

PORTUGAL.

of the island, and the palm and banana thriving in the lower plains. The vine was long cultivated in Madeira on a scale of great extent, and furnished the chief produce of the island; but it was completely destroyed by disease, and great suffering was thence occasioned to the inhabitants. The cul-ture of the sugar-cane was then introduced in its stead. The chief town of the island is *Funchal*, on the south coast. The small island of **Porto Santo**, to the eastward of Madeira, also belongs to Portugal. It is a dependency of Madeira. The inhabitants of Madeira and Porto Santo number 132,000, chiefly Portuguese.

COLONIES.—The foreign possessions of Portugal were formerly much more extensive than at present. In the fifteenth century, the Portuguese were the foremost among the maritime nations of Europe; and the discoveries of Cabral in the Atlantic and of Vasco da Gama in the Indian Ocean were speedily followed by the conquest of vast territories in South America and the East Indies.

The foreign possessions of Portugal comprehend the Cape Verde Islands. the province of Angola and other territories on the West Coast of Africa, with St. Thomas and Prince's Island in the Gulf of Guinea; the province of Mozambique and other territories on the East Coast of the African continent; together with Goa on the western coast of India, Macao in China, and part of the island of Timor in the East Indies.1

QUESTIONS ON SPAIN AND PORTUGAL.

1. How is Spain bounded, and what is its sile as compared with that of England and Wales? 2. In what does the cosst-line of Spain differ from that of the Italian or the Greeian peninsulas 3. Name the principal capes. Point to them on the map. 4. What islands in the Mediterranean belong

4. What islands in the Mediterranean belong to Spain⁷. 5. Name the mountain chains of Spaia. Which of them is the highest? 6. What kind of country (as to physical fea-tures) does the interior of the Spanish penia-sul form? 7. Enumerate the principal rivers of Spain. 8. By what is the elimate of Spain chiefly characterised? 9. What productions of the vegetable kingdom belong to the southern and eastern shores of Spain?

belong to the southern and eastern shores of Spain? 10. What minerals does Spain possess? Which among them is furnished by the mines of Alma-den, and where is that place? Table Spain anches of industry chiefly distin-gian Spain anches of industry chiefly distin-tion is historically divided. 13. Which of these provinces is most to the southward? Which in the north-west angle of the peninsula? Which in the north-west Which two in the central parts of the kingdom! 14. In which of the provinces are the following towns:--Madrid, Bargos, Valladolid, Servillo, Cadig, Cartagena, Barcelona, and Alicante? 16. In which provinces are Badajos, Bargoss, Pamplona, Oviedo, Corunna, and Santiago? 16. Upon what rivers are the following towns

situated :-- Madrid, Toledo, Badajos, Cordova, Saragossa, and Granada?

Sumpose, and Granada? 3ragoese, and Granada? 17. Upon what portions of the Spanish coasts are Cadig. Malaga, Cartagona, Barcelona, San Sebastian, Ferrol, and Vigo? 13. For what are Talavera, Badajos, Saragossa, and San Sebastian historically noteworthy? 19. By what events have the ports of Palog and San Lucar been distinguished? In what pert of Spain are they situated? 20. In what part of Spain is Gibraltar? What re the peculiarities of its situation (as to natural features), and to what nation does it belong? 21. How is Portugal bounded? What is its ize as compared with that of Spain, and Eng. Ind and Wales? 23. Name the rivers of Portugal. Which of the number has its course entirely within that ounsity?

country? 94. What kind of climate has Portugal? What 94. What kind of climate has Portugal?

34. What kind of climate has Fortugal? What fruits are among its productions? 35. What branch of industry is most impor-tant in Portugal? In what does its foreigu trade chiafly consist? 36. Under what form of government is Portu-gal? What religion is uniformly followed? 37. In which of the provinces of Portugal are. Lisbon and Oporto respectively situated? On what rivers are they?

25. Where are they? 25. Where are Comber and Setubal? What 26. Where are Comber and Setubal? What 27. For what are the localities of Vimiera, 26. For what are the localities of Vimiera, 70 res years, and Cape St. Vincent note-

Worthy? 30. Describe briefly the Azores and Madeira. What other colonies belong to Portugal?

1. The Portuguese possessions in Africa are | The possessions in Asia have an area of only officially estimated to have an area of 697,000 7,160 square miles, and a population of about succession (550,000)

ASIA.

ASIA,¹ the most eastwardly of the three continents which constitute the Old World, is the largest of all the great divisions of the globe. This continent falls entirely within the northern hemisphere, but some of the adjacent islands extend to the south of the equator.

BOUNDARIES.—Asia is bounded on the north by the Arctic Ocean; on the east by the Pacific Ocean; on the south by the Indian Ocean; on the west by the Red Sea, the Mediterranean Sea, the Black Sea, the Caucasus Mountains, the Caspian Sea, the river Ural, and the Ural Mountains.

To the northward of the Caucasus Mountains and the Caspian Sea, Asia and Europe constitute one continuous expanse of land, with only the course of the river Ural and the slight elevations of the Ural Mountains to mark the division between them. Asia is joined to Africa by the Isthmus of Suez, 73 miles wide, which lies between the Mediterranean and the Red Seas. Bering Strait, 35 miles in width, separates Asia from North America.

EXTENT.-Asia measures more than 5,000 miles across in the direction of east and west, and about 4,000 miles in its average dimensions from north to south. Its area is 17,500,000 square miles, so that it is nearly five times larger than Europe.

Asia thus embraces more than a third part of all the land, or a twelfth part of the entire surface, of the globe. The distance between Cape Chelyuskin, the extreme northerly point of the continent, to Cape Romania, the most southerly point (about 5,800 miles), is much less than the distance between the most easterly and westerly points, East Cape and Cape Baba (about 7,000 miles).

COASTS.—The total length of the *coast-line* of Asia is about 35,000 miles, equivalent to an average of 1 mile of coast to every 500 square miles of area.^{*}

In shape, Asia is less irregular and more solid than Europe. Its vast interior exhibits an immense expanse of land, far removed from contact with the ocean. But its external portions, both in the east and the south, are indented by numerous arms of the sea.

1. Inlets.—Each of the three great oceans which wash the shores of Asia have several considerable inlets, but those belonging to the Indian and the Pacific Oceans are much more numerous than those connected with the Arctic.

(1.) The Arctic Ocean, on the north side of Asia, has two considerable gulfs, the Gulf of Obi and the Gulf of Yenisei.

(2.) The Pacific Ocean, which washes the eastern shores of Asia, has the following arms :- the Bering Sea, the Sea of Okhotsk, the Sea of Japan, the Yellow Sea, and the China Sea. These are not inland seas, in the strict meaning of the term, but they are divided from the open ocean by chains of islands and advancing peninsulas. They are therefore in great measure land-

enclosed, though connected with the ocean by numerous channels. The northern part of the Sea of Japan is called the Gulf of Tartary.

(3.) The Indian Ocean, 1 on the south of Asis, divides into the Bay of Bengal and the Arabian Sea ; the former is on the east side of the peninsula of India Proper, the latter on its western side. The Red Sea 2 and the Persian Gulf, which are two inland seas, are likewise arms of the Indian Ocean. The Red Sea divides on the north into the Gulfs of Suez and Akaba, between which is the Sinai Peninsula.

(4.) The western shores of Asia are washed in part by the Mediterranean, Black, and Caspian Seas. The Gulfs of Iskenderún and Adalia belong to the Mediterranean, and the Kara Bughas Gulf and Dead Bay to the Caspian.

2. Straits.—The most important straits of Asia are five in number. namely :---

(1.) Strait of Bab el Mandeb, forming the entrance to the Red Sea.

(2.) Strait of Ormuz, forming the entrance to the Persian Gulf.

(3.) Strait of Malacca, forming one entrance to the China Sea.

(4.) Strait of Sunda, forming another entrance to the China Sea.

(5.) Bering Strait, between Asia and North America.

Besides these there are the Dardanelles (between the Ægean Sea and the Sea of Marmora), and the Strait of Constantinople (between the Sea of Marmora and the Black Sea), which are European as well as Asiatic. The broader channel which extends between the Strait of Bab el Mandeb^s and the Indian Ocean is called the Gulf of Aden, and the similar channel which leads to the Strait of Ormuz is called the Gulf of Oman.

3. Capes.—The principal are the North-East Cape, or Cape Chelyuskin," on the north; East Cape and Cape Lopatka, on the east; Cape Romania, Cape Comorin, and Ras al Had, on the south ; and Cape Carmel and Cane Baba, on the west.

The North-East Cape of Asia, the extreme point of the Taimyr Peninsula, is the most northerly point of that continent, and approaches within less than twelve degrees of the pole. Cape Romania, the terminal headland of the Malay Peninsula, is the most southerly point, and is little more than one degree distant from the equator. **East Cape**, the most easterly point, is only 36 miles distant from Cape Prince of Wales, on the American side of Bering Strait. **Cape Baba**, in Asia Minor, is the most westerly point of the mainland, but several of the islands in the Ægean Sea, which geographically belong to Asia. lie some miles further west.

PENINSULAS.—The following peninsulas belong to Asia :— Kamtchatka, Corea, Further India, India Proper, Arabia, and Asia Minor. The two first-mentioned are in the east, the three following in the south, and Asia Minor in the west. The most southerly portion of Further India or the Indo-Chinese Peninsula forms the narrow Peninsula of Malaya.

The Asiatic peninsulas, though considerable in size, yet bear a much smaller proportion to the entire extent of Asia than the peninsular portions

patches are due to the presence of vast numbers of microscopic animalculs. 3. Bab el Mandeb, "gate of tears;" so called from the numerous shipwrecks in the early and middle age. 4. The North-East Cape of Asia is sometimes called North Cape or Cape Serero. The Russian name (Chelynskin) is now generally used by geo-graphers.

^{1.} For full information relative to the Arctic, Pacific, and Indian Oceans, see "The Geography of the Oceans, Physical, Historical, and Descrip-tive" (G. Philip & Son). 2. Bed See. Generally said to be derived from the coral rest? which abound in it. This is erromeous, as the corals are mostly white. But patches of deep-red water are frequently seen within the reefs, whence the name. These

of Europe do to the whole of the European continent. They leave the great central mass of Asia in unbroken solidity. In Asia, the peninsulas merely fill the place of external members to the general framework of the continent; in Europe, they constitute the most important features of the continent; itself. This difference is highly important. It is a remarkable fact that all the great peninsulas of Asia, except Asia Minor, are, like those of Europe, turned to the south. It is also noteworthy that all the Asiatic peninsulas, except Malaya and Kamtchatka, unite more or less broadly with the mainland. The neck of land which joins Kamtchatka to the Siberian mainland is about 115 miles wide in its narrowest part, and the Isthmus of Krah, which unites the Malay Peninsula to the larger Indo-Chinese Peninsula, is, in one part, only about 30 miles wide. But by far the most important is the Isthmus of Suez, which connects Asia with Africa. This isthmus is about 70 miles across, and is now traversed by a ship canal from Port Said on the Mediterranean to Suez on the Red Sea. This canal has almost entirely superseded the overland route by rail from Alexandria to Cairo and thence to Suez, and is at present the great highway of commerce between Europe and the East Indies and Australasia.

ISLANDS.—The islands of Asia are important and numerous, especially off its southern and eastern coasts. They may be arranged in four great classes—(1) those situated in the Arctic Ocean, (2) those in the Pacific, (3) those in the Indian Ocean, and (4) those in the Mediterranean Sea.

1. In the Arctic Ocean are the Liakhov¹ or New Siberia Islands, the Bear Islands, and Wrangel Island, off the northern coast of Siberia.

2. In the Pacific Ocean are the Aleutian Islands, which extend from Alaska to Kamtchatka and enclose Bering Sea; the Kurile Islands, between Kamtchatka and Japan, which enclose the Sea of Okhotsk; Sakhalin,^a between the Sea of Okhotsk and the Sea of Japan—the latter sea is enclosed on the east by the Japanese Islands (Yezo, Nippon, Sikoku, and Kiusiu); the Loo-choo Islands, a group midway between Kiusiu and Formosa;^a Hainan, off the entrance to the Gulf of Tonquin; and the Philippine Islands. The last-named group of islands forms a portion of an extensive region known as the Malay Archipelago, which lies between the waters of the Pacific and the Indian Ocean, bordering on each.

The Malay Archipelago • embraces, besides the Philippine Islands, the large islands of Borneo, Sumatra, • Java, and Celebes, with the group of the Moluccas, and a long chain of smaller islands, which stretch to the eastward of Java and are known as the Lesser Sunda Islands. Borneo is the largest island in the East Indies, and (regarding Australia as a continent) the third largest island in the world.

3. In the Indian Ocean: — Ceylon, off the south-eastern extremity of India; the Andaman and Nicobar Islands, in the Bay of Bengal; and the Laccadive and Maldive Islands, off the south-western coast of India.

4. In the Mediterranean Sea: ---Cyprus, in the Levant, with Rhodes, Kos, Samos, Mitylene, and several of the small islands of the Archipelago.

*** The above islands are described under the countries to which they geographically belong.

quantities of fossil ivory found on them.	pelago. Several of the Malaysian islands con- tain numerous active volcances, and the whole
2. Or Saghalien.	group is subject to earthquakes.
8. Formosa, "beautiful."	5. Sumatra and Java are together called the
4. Also called Malaysia and East Indian Archi-	Greater Sunda Islands.

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EXAMINATION OUESTIONS.

1. State briefly the position and boundaries of

State order, and state of the dimensions of Asia, and what 2. What are the dimensions of Asia, and what proportion does its area bear to the whole ex-tent of the land upon the globe?
 X. What characterises the shape of the Asiatic

a. What two gulfs does the Arctic Ocean, on
4. What two gulfs does the Arctic Ocean, on
the north of Asia, form?
5. What seas occur on the eastern side of Asia?
6. What we great arms has the Indian Ocean, to the south of Asia?
7. What two inland seas belong to Asia?
8. Where are the following :--the Gulf of Obi, the Sea of Okhotsk, the Gulf of Tartary, the China Sea, and the Bay of Bengal?
8. Name the friencipal straits of Asia, and state the sea and gulfs which they unite.
10. Name the principal capes of Asia, and state which of them form the extreme points of the continent.

continent.

- 11. How near does the most northerly cape of Ania approach to the pole? 12. How near is the most southerly point of Asia to the equator? 13. Nam six of the largest Aslatic penin-
- sulas
- miss.
 14. What smaller peninsula forms the south-wardy portion of India beyond the Ganges ?
 15. In what respect do the peninsulas of Asia differ (in their relation to the entire mass of the Asiatic continent) from those of Europe?
 16. What istimuts joins (I) the Malay penin-sula to the mainland, (2) Asia to Africa ?
 17. Name the principal islands of Asia, and say where they are situated.
 16. Wint islands are situated to the north of a set of the set o

Asia? 19. Point on the map to the following :-Japan, the Kurile Islands, Formosa, Sumatra, Ceylon, the Andaman Islands, the Maldive Islands, and Oyprus.

SURFACE.—The characteristic feature in the surface of Asia is the vast contrast between the loftiest mountains and the greatest depressions; extensive plateaux and enormous plains; most fertile tracts bordering on sterile deserts.

A careful examination of a good physical map of Asia will enable the student to note the actual examples of these characteristic contrasts of the Asiatic continent. Thus, while some of the Himalayan peaks rise 10,000 feet above the line of perpetual snow, the Runn of Cutch is so low that it is inundated by the sea during the south-west monsoon; the vast plateau of Tibet contrasts strongly with the plains of Siberia and Hindustan; and the fertile and productive plain of the Ganges is only divided from the bare and sandy expanse of the Great Indian Desert by the Aravalli Hills.

The mountains of Asia are the highest in the world; but they are, notwithstanding, of inferior importance to the vast and elevated masses of tableland which belong to this continent. The mountain chains of Asia generally mark the outer borders of the high interior plateaux. Hence their slope, or descent, is much greater upon one side than upon the other, and the apparent altitude of the chain is different according as it is viewed from the grounds which form its base in opposite directions.

TABLELANDS: Asia is, *par excellence*, the continent of great blelands. The **Pamir Plateau**—the "Roof of the World," the tablelands Tableland of Tibet, the Mongolian Plateau with the upland Desert of Gobi or Shamo, the Iranian Plateau, which includes the uplands of Afghanistan and Persia, the Armenian Highlands, and the Plateau of Asia Minor, with the Arabian Plateau, and the Deccan in Southern India, are the largest of the tablelands, which cover fully two-fifths of the entire continent.

The position of these great uplands will be readily found upon the map. Tibet and Mongolia, it will be seen, occupy the interior and most central regions of the Asiatic continent, far distant from any of the oceans by which the shores of Asia are washed. Afghanistan, Persia (Iran), Armenia, and Asia Minor stretch in succession from the north-western borders of India to the shores of the Mediterranean and the Black Sea. The Deccan embraces the interior of Central and Southern India. The Arabian Plateau comprises all the interior of the large peninsula of Arabia.

These regions are of various heights, ranging between 2,500 and 16,000 feet above the level of the sea; but they all lie at much greater elevations than other parts of the continent, and most of the rivers of Asia have their origin in the mountain chains which form their external borders. The most elevated of the number are the Pamir Plateau and the tableland of Tibet. The vast plains of the latter are at the astonishing altitude of 16,000 feet (or upwards of three miles) above the sea. Tibet is, therefore, comparatively to its latitude, a cold country.

MOUNTAINS.—The mountains of Asia lie principally in the direction of east and west, and form, in most instances, the borders of the tablelands. Some of them, however, have an opposite direction, running from north to south.

The principal mountain ranges are the Himalaya Mountains,¹ between India and Tibet; the Hindu-Kush, between Afghanistan and Turkestan; the Altai Mountains,³ between Mongolia and Siberia; the Karakoram Mountains, between the Himalayas and the Kuen-Luen; the Kuen-Luen, be-tween Tibet and Chinese Turkestan; the Thian-Shan,³ which run through Chinese Turkestan and Mongolia; the Elburs Mountains, in Persia, south of the Caspian Sea; the Gaucasus, between the Caspian and the Black Seas; the Mountains on the plateau of Armenia the Tarmar Mountains the Mountains of Armenia, on the plateau of Armenia; the Taurus Mountains, in Asia Minor; the Mountains of Lebanon, on the east coast of Syria; the Ghats, on the eastern and western coasts of India; and the Nan-ling and the Pe-ling Mountains, in China.

Of the above ranges two only, the Ghats and the Mountains of Lebanon, extend in the direction of north and south-all the rest extend generally in an east to west direction. Several of the minor ranges, however, also extend north and south, such as the Sulaiman Mountains and the Hala Mountains, on the western frontiers of India. These and other minor ranges are described under the countries in which they are situated.

1. The Himalaya Mountains are by far the highest of the mountains of Asia. All the upper portions of this vast range rise above the line of perpetual snow, and the principal peaks exceed 20,000 feet in altitude. The most elevated of the Himalaya peaks is Gaurisankar or Mount Everest, which reaches 29,000 feet above the sea, and is the highest known mountain on the globe. This is a stupendous elevation, amounting to more than five miles in perpendicular height, and nearly double that of Mont Blanc, the highest summit of the Alps. Yet, great as it is compared with man, or the works of man, it is trifling as compared with the entire magnitude of the globe. Many of the other peaks of the Himalayas nearly rival Mount Everest in height, Kanchinjanga rising over 28,000 feet, and Dhwalagiri nearly 27,000 feet above sea level. The higher valleys of the Himalayas are filled with vast glaciers, which exceed in size those of any other part of the world. It is worthy of note that the snow-line on the northern side of the Himalayas is 3,000 feet higher than on the southern side (18,000 and 15,000 feet respectively).

2. The Hindu-Kush adjoin the western extremity of the Himalayas (from which they are divided by the valley of the Indus), and reach nearly 20,000 feet in altitude. They form part of a vast mountain-knot, or centre of elevation, whence various elevated chains and ridges diverge, and form

^{1.} Himalaya, from Sanskrit him, snow ; alaya,

^{1.} Himalaya, HUM Character and the Mongols place. 2. Aitai Mountains: called by the Mongols Altai-so-da, i.e., golden mountains. The name Altai is most probably derived from the Turkish A. Thian-Shan, "mountains of the sky," also called the "Colestial Mountains." The Chinese name for the empire (Tath-chung-Kwo) means the "Celestial Empire."

⁴ The height of Mount Everest is equal to about one *filesn-hundredik* part of the length of the earth's diameter, and would be represented on the largest of our artificial globes by a minute grain of sand; so little do the loftlest elevations on the earth's surface detract from the sphericity of the entire mass of the globe. The altitude of this mountain was first determined by Colonel Everest, hence its name.

a connecting link between the highlands of central Asia and those that belong to the more westerly division of the continent.

3. The Altai Mountains are much less elevated, their height not generally exceeding from five to seven thousand feet; but they form part of a continuous succession of high grounds which stretch to the easternmost extremity of the Asiatic continent.

4. The Kuen-Luen and Thian-Shan ranges stretch through the plains of central Asia, across the country which intervenes between the Himalaya and the Altai systems. They rise above the snow-line, the summits of the former reaching 20,000 feet.

5 Between the Himalayas and the Kuen-Luen are the lofty Karakoram Mountains. One peak in this range, *Dapsang*, reaches an altitude of 28,000 feet, and another peak rises still higher, its altitude being 28,278 feet. This mountain, marked "K²" on the Indian Survey Map, and now named Mount Godwin Austin, is the second highest mountain in the world.

6. The Mountains of Armenia culminate in Mount Ararat (17.000 feet), which tradition indicates as the resting-place of the Ark on the subsidence of the Deluge. It is within the Russian territory, but near the borders of Asiatic Turkey and Persia.

7. The chain of Mount Taurus extends along the south coast of the peninsula of Asia Minor, and is from 4,000 to 5,000 feet in average height.

8. The Mountains of Lebanon stretch, in a double chain, along the coast of Syria, bordering the eastern Mediterranean. Their highest summits are Mount Hermon and Dahr el Khotib; the latter rises 10,050 feet above the sea, the former is 9,200 feet.

9. The Western Ghats, which extend along the western coast of the Indian peninsula, are from 3,000 to 4,000 feet in average height, and attain double that altitude in their highest elevations. The Eastern Ghats, on the opposite side of the peninsula, are less elevated.

PLAINS .- The interior regions of Asia are, for the most part, elevated; the lowland plains occupy its outer borders towards the sea. The names and localities of these plains ' are as follow :---

- 1. The Plain of Siberia, occupying all the north of Asia.
- 2. The Plain of Turkestan, extends south and east of the Sea of Aral.
- 3. The Plain of China, in the north-east of China, along the Yellow Sea.
- 4. The Plain of Tonquin, in the north of Annam, along the Gulf of Tonquin.
- 5. The Plain of Siam, at the head of the Gulf of Siam.
- 6. The Plain of Pegu, in Further India, to the south of Burma.
- 7. The Plain of Hindustan, the northerly portion of India Proper. 8. The Plains of Mesopotamia and Babylonia, in Asiatic Turkey.

DESERTS.—Asia contains some extensive deserts. They stretch in nearly continuous succession, from the most central regions of the interior to the shores of its south-western peninsula, Arabia, where they meet the waters of the Red Sea. There names 1 are as follow :----

- 1. The Desert of Gobi or Shamo, 2 in Mongolia (Chinese Empire).
- 2. The Indian Desert, in India, between the Indus and the Ganges.
- 3. The Deserts of Seistan and Mekran, to the south-west of Afghanistan.
- 4. The Great Salt Desert (Dasht-i-kavír), in Persia.
- The Desert of Mesopotamia, ^a between the Tigris and the Euphrates.
 The Syrian Desert, in the east of Syria, in Asiatic Turkey.
 The Desert of Arabia, in the interior of Arabia.

^{1.} A detailed description of each of the above 2. Gohi is the Mongolian word for "descript" plains and descripts is given in the geography of Bhamo (Chinese), "see of sand." the countries in which they are situated. 3. Or El Jesireh.

BIVERS.—The rivers of Asia are the largest in the Old World. Most of them derive their origin from the high tablelands and bordering mountains in the interior of the continent, and flow through the lowland plains into the oceans by which Asia is bounded on the north, east, and south.

Some of the rivers in the western part of Asia, however, flow either into the Caspian Sea or the Sea of Aral, and hence never reach the ocean; and many of the smaller streams of the interior terminate in saltwater lakes, without any outlet. A large region of central Asia is thus limited to an inland drainage and is devoid of any natural outlet to the sea-a fact which has been productive of highly important consequences to the inhabitants of those regions, and has largely influenced the history of mankind.

The principal rivers of Asia¹ are the Obi, Yenisei, Lena, and other Siberian rivers draining the Northern Slope of the continent; the Amur, Hoang-ho, Yang-tsze-kiang, and the Si-kiang or Canton River, draining the Eastern Slope; the Mekong, Menam, Saluen, Irawadi, Brahmaputra, Ganges, Mahanadi, Godaveri, Kistna, Cauveri, Tapti, Narbada, Indus, Euphrates, and Tigris, draining the Southern Slope; the Kizil Irmak, flowing into the Black Sea; the Ural, Kura, and the Kizil Uzen and Atrek, which enter the Caspian Sea; the Amu Daria and the Sir Daria, which flow into the Sea of Aral; and the Jordan, which falls into the Dead Sea.

: The rivers of Asia may be also arranged in five groups, according to the systems of which they form a part.

1. The Asiatic Section of the Arctic River-Bystem embraces all the rivers which drain the *northern slope* of the continent. Of these, the largest are the Obi, the Yenisei, and the Lena, the three great rivers of Siberia.

2. The Asiatic Section of the Atlantic, or rather Mediterranean, Biver-System embraces numerous unimportant streams that fall into the *Black* Sea, the *Egean Sea*, and the *Mediterranean*, from Trans-Caucasia and Asiatic Turkey.

3. The Asiatic Section of the Pacific Biver-System is far more important than the American or the Australian sections, both in the number and magnitude of its rivers, which rise far inland among the mountains that buttress the great central plateau of Asia. The principal streams are the Amur, forming, for the most part, the boundary between the Russian and Chinese dominions; the Hoang-ho, Yang-tase-kiang, and Si-kiang, in China; and the Song-ka, Mekong, and Menam, in Further India.

4. The Asiatic Section of the River-System of the Indian Ocean comprises some of the largest rivers of the globe, such as the Irawadi, Brahmaputra, and Ganges, which fall into the Bay of Bengal; the Indus, flowing into the Arabian Sea; and the Tigris and Euphrates, which unite their waters into one stream—the Shat el Arab—before debouching into the Persian Gulf. Of the smaller streams included in this section, the principal are the Saluen and Sitang, flowing into the Gulf of Martaban;

^{1.} A detailed account of the principal rivers is given under the countries to which they geographically belong.

the Mahanadi, Godaveri, Kistna, and Cauveri, draining the eastern slope of *Peninsular India*; and the Tapti and Narbada, flowing into the *Gulf* of *Cambay*. Between the Indus and the Shat el Arab, a few unimportant rivers enter the sea, but the whole circuit of the Arabian coast is unbroken by the outlet of any permanent stream.

The Brahmaputra and the Ganges derive their waters not only from the snows of the Himalayas, but also from the monsoon rains. The numerous streams that drain the Deccan, on the contrary, are supplied entirely by the monsoon rains, and are thus subject to comparatively greater variations in depth and volume. The line of elevation that marks the edge of the Deccan being continuous on the western side only (the Eastern Ghats being merely a series of detached elevations), all the great rivers of Peninsular India, with the exception of the Narbada and the Tapti, flow eastwards into the Bay of Bengal, their descent from the plateau to the coast plain being marked by rapids or by falls.

5. The Continental River-System of Asia includes all those rivers which have no outlet to the sea, but discharge their waters into enclosed basins, such as the Caspian, the Sea of Aral, &c.

The Caspian Sea, which receives the longest of European rivers, only receives a few comparatively small Asiatic streams—the Kura, the Klil-Uzen, and the Atrek. The adjacent Sea of Aral receives two considerable streams, the Amu Daria, and the Sir Daria. East of the Sea of Aral is another great inland basin, Lake Balkash, which receives numerous streams—the most important is the III—from the northern slopes of the Thian-Shan Mountains. The surplus waters of the Tarim, which is fed by numerous streams from the encircling mountains, are poured into the great marshes of Lob-Nor, in the very centre of the continent. Other smaller continental streams are the Jabkan in the Altai region, the Zarafshan in Western Turkestan, and the Jordan in Palestine.

LAKES.—The three largest lakes of Asia, if we except the Caspian Sea, which is partly European, are Aral, 26,000 square miles in area, Baikal, 15,000, and Balkash, 9,000.

The Sea of Aral, though strictly speaking a lake, is so large as to be called a sea. It lies a short distance to the east of the Caspian, and its waters are unusually salt. Lake Baikal lies to the north of the Altai Mountains, and its the largest *freeh-water* lake in Asia. Lake Balkah is in Russian Central Asia; its waters are bitterly salt. Many of the lakes which are situated on the high interior plateaux in Tibet and Mongolia are without any outlet, and consist of salt-water; but this is not the case with all of them. There are also some large fresh-water lakes in China, adjoining the great rivers of that country.

In Western Asia, three large lakes are found upon the Armenian Plateau. Two of the number, **Lake Urumiah** and **Lake Van**, are *sall*; the third, **Lake Gokcha** or Sevan, in Trans-Caucasia, is *fresh*. The **Dead Sea**, in Syria, which receives the river Jordan, is intensely salt, and is remarkable as lying in a deep hollow, its surface being far below the general level of the waters of the globe.¹

^{1.} The surface of the Dead Sea is nearly 1,800 feet below the level of that of the Mediterranean Sea.

EXAMINATION QUESTIONS.

1. What are the characteristic features on the surface of Asia?

2. Name and state the position of the principal inbielands of Asia. 8. What is the general direction of the mount-

ain chains of Asia?

4 Name the principal mountain systems of

5. Where are the following :--The Himsiayas, Allai, Taurus, Ghata, Hindu-Kush, and the Lebanon ?

Lebanon r 6. Which is highest among the mountain systems of Asia? What is the name of its befust summit:

7. What is the average height of the Altai mountain system? How far does it extend to

mountain system; into the east and its and the east ward? S. Which is highest among the mountains of Armenia? What radiition attaches to it? B. What is the name of the highest among the mountains of the Lebanon, and what is the stitude?

their altitude? 10. What is the average height of the Ghats? 11. Name the chief lowland plains of Asia

12. Which is largest among the Asiatic low-

iii. By what rivers are the plains of Mesopo-mia and Babylonia watered?
 iii Aname the principal deserts of Asia.
 iii An extensive region of Asia is watered by

rivers which have no outlet to the ocean. W What

Name the great rivers of Asia which flow into (1) the Arctic Ocean, (2) the Pacific Ocean, (3) the Indian Ocean, (4) the Sea of Aral, (5) the

(3) the Indian Ocean, (4) the Sea of Aral, (6) the Caption Sea. 17. Name the principal rivers of Asia, and say into what sease they flow. 18. What three rivers rise in the mountain ratem of the Hinmalaya? 18. Name the two great rivers of China. 18. Which are the three largest among the large of Asia? What characteristic difference is there between them? 19. Which three lakes are situated on the

II. What three lakes are situated on the plateau of Armenia? Are their waters salt or resh?

CLIMATE. - Asia comprehends a greater variety of climate than any other division of the globe. This results from its vast extent of land and its great range of latitude. The extreme south of the Asiatic continent nearly touches the equator, and its northernmost portions are within twelve degrees of the pole. Hence there are experienced, within different portions of its vast extent, every variety of temperature, from the burning heat of the tropics to the most intense cold of the Frigid Zone.

But latitude alone does not determine the extraordinary range of Asiatic climates in respect of heat and cold. The vast extent and great altitude of the tablelands of Asia ; its stupendous chains of snow-covered mountains ; the great distance of its central interior from the modifying influence of oceanic moisture ; -these require to be taken into account in order to explain the extremes of heat and cold which distinguish the summers and winters of Asiatic lands.

1. In Asia, as in every other part of the globe, there is a gradual decrease of heat in advancing from the neighbourhood of the equator towards a higher latitude.

(1.) The southern portion of Asia is in the Torrid Zone; its middle parts fall within the Temperate Zone; and its northerly plains are beyond the Arctic Circle—that is, in the Frigid Zone. Hence the southern parts of Asia are hotter than its middle portions, and the latter experience a higher temperature than its more northerly regions.

(2.) But there is also a great difference of temperature between the regions of eastern and western Asia, even in similar latitudes, and the extremes of summer and winter temperature cause wide differences of climate even in countries which make near approach to equality in so far as the average

^{2.} After a thorough study of the climate of | of Europe (see p. 29), noting especially the points Asia, the student should compare it with that | of resemblance and difference.

heat of the year is concerned. In general, the eastern parts of Asia are colder than the western, and they have greater extremes of heat and cold at opposite seasons of the year; that is, they have hotter summers and colder winters. Similar extremes characterise the high plains of central Asia and, in greater or less measure, all its tableland regions.

2. Three broad and well-marked climatic divisions may be marked out on the map of Asia :---

(1.) A southern belt of countries, in which the air is hot and moist.

(2.) A middle zone, which is generally hot and dry, but with great extremes of heat and cold.

(3.) A northerly zone, which is a region of intense and prolonged cold.

The first zone comprises the countries that border on the Indian Ocean and the China Sea, with the exception of Arabia, which is characterised by ardity. The second includes the high plateaux which stretch in succession from the shores of the Red Sea to the further extreme of Mongolia. Tibet and Mongolia furnish its most prominent examples: Afghanistan, Persia, and Arabia fall within its limits, though the low belt of country which borders the outer edge of the Arabian peninsula is intensely hot and arid, and the shores of the Persian Gulf are among the hottest regions of the globe. The *third* zone stretches from the shores of the Caspian Sea and the Sea of Aral to the easternmost limits of the Siberian plain. Turkestan and Siberia are the countries that it embraces.

Bainfall.—The quantity of rain that falls in most parts of southern Asia is very great, vastly greater than is the case in any part of Europe, but it falls at particular seasons only, and within a brief space of time.

In the countries of the Torrid Zone (to which the south of Asia belongs), the changes of the year are marked by the recurrence of the wet and the dry seasons. Summer and winter, such as they are experienced in temperate latitudes, are there unknown; a lengthened period of dry weather (during which the sun is almost uniformly bright and the sky cloudless) is succeeded by a season of excessive rain, which again gives place to returning drought and heat. These changes are intimately connected with the direction of the winds which blow periodically over the Indian Ocean and the bordering countries, and which are known as the monsoons.¹ Throughout southern Asia there is a summer monsoon (April to September), which blows from the south-west; and a winter monsoon (October to March), from the north-east. These winds bring alternate rain or drought, according as they have blown over inland regions or over the adjacent expanse of ocean.

PRODUCTIONS.—The natural productions of Asia are numerous and important. Nearly every mineral and metal is found in this vast continent. The vegetable productions are extremely varied, while the variety of animal life is great, comprising over six hundred mammals, or more than a third of the number of known species.

1. Minerals.—Asia has great variety of mineral produce, and some of the most valued productions of the mineral kingdom are found within its limits. The *diamond* and other precious stones occur; the former in Borneo and others of the East Indian Islands, and also in continental India. *Gold* is furnished in some quantities by the mines of Siberia (both in the Altai and Ural mountain-regions), and is also worked in Borneo and the countries of the Indo-Chinese Peninsula, as well as in

^{1.} The word "monsoon" in Malay signifies periodical currents of the atmosphere. The season, a fact which is evidence of the immediate dependence of Indian climates upon the equator are also regulated by the monsoona.

China and Japan. Both Siberia and China supply silver and also lead. Iron, copper, tin, and other useful metals are distributed through the various countries of western and southern Asia. The tin of Banca (one of the smaller islands of the East Indies, situated to the east of Sumatra) is particularly noted. Iron-ore abounds in various parts of India. Coal is distributed through various parts of India, China, and Burma, and is worked in the small island of Labuan, off the north-west coast of Borneo. The coalfields of China are the most extensive in the world, and, when developed, will revolutionize the industrial relations of Europe and Asia. In western Asia, coal occurs in Asia Minor and in the mountain range of the Lebanon, on the Syrian coast. Enormous quantities of petroleum are derived from the naphtha-springs of Baku, on the western shore of the Caspian Sea.

2. Plants.—The vegetable productions of Asia are extremely rich and diversified. A great number of the food-plants that are most useful to man, and which are now most extensively employed throughout the globe in the supply of man's wants, were originally derived from Asia. Rice, and probably wheat, among the cereals; the date, fig, vine, plum, cherry, peach, apple, pomegranate, olive, mulberry, lime, walnut, almond, cocoanut, orange, lemon, citron, and banana, amongst fruits; together with the tea-plant, and various spices, are all native to Asia. The sugar-cane, indigo, cotton, and hemp plants are also native to various countries of Asia. There are, besides, an immense variety of forest trees, as the teak, ebony, iron-wood, sandal-wood, rose-wood, cedar, and many other valuable woods, besides abundant varieties of the oak, birch, cypress, and other trees that belong to the southern and middle latitudes of Europe.

Rice is the chief food-plant of southern Asia, and is the prime support of life to the immense population of China and India. The fruit of the *date-palm* supplies a like place to the people of Arabia and other comparatively arid regions of south-western Asia. The *cocca-sut* palm is characteristic of the islands of southern and south-eastern Asia, and of the shores of the two Indian penineulas. The *tea-plant* is a native of China and Japan, and is now extensively cultivated in British India. The high plateaux of central Asia are distinguished chiefly by the abundance of their grasse; boundless pastures stretch through the whole middle belt of Asia, from the shores of the Caspian to the banks of the Amur and the waters of the Pacific.

3. Animals.—The variety of animal life belonging to Asia is very great. All our domestic quadrupeds are native to it, as well as many other animals which are of the highest utility to civilised man.

(1.) First in importance among these is the *camel*, which ranges over the dry plains of south-western and central Asia, from the Red Sea to the farthest extremity of the Gobi and the shores of Lake Baikal, serving everywhere as the means of transport across the arid wilderness. The *elephant*—another of the Asiatic quadrupeds which man has domesticated —belongs to the warm and watered regions in the south-east of the continent, including the two Indian peninsulas and the island of Ceylon. The *horse* frequents all southern and middle Asia, as far north as the sixtieth parallel, and the vast plains that stretch to the eastward of the Sea of Aral are probably its original seat. The *wild ass* inhabits the plains of central and south-western Asia.

The vast number of animals belonging to the ox tribe is a marked characteristic of Asiatic zoology. They are most numerous in the high plains of central Asia, and comprise, besides the common oz, the *aurochs*, yak, zebu (or humped ox), buffalo, and others. Antelopes occur in the drier regions of the south-west. ASIA.

(2) Among carnivora,¹ the lion, tiger, leopard, hyena, wolf, and jackal are natives of Asia. The lion has now a much less extensive range than formerly, and is restricted to the countries lying between the Euphrates and the Indian Desert. The tiger is found over a much wider circuit, and frequents all the woods and jungles of southern and south-eastern Asia, roaning as far to the north as the deserts of the Mongolian Plateau and the Altai Mountains. The hyena and jackal belong chiefly to Western Asia; the wolf to the colder districts of the north and west.

The numerous fur-bearing animals which are native to the extreme north of Asia are another of its marked characteristics; among them are the bear, glutton, badger, wolf, fox, lynx, pole-cat, weasel, ermine, marten, etter, sable, squirrel, beaver, hare, and reindeer.

(3) The countries of south-eastern Asia and the islands of the neighbouring archipelago are exceedingly rich in variety of birds, especially those of the *gallinaceous*² tribe, many of them distinguished by their beautiful plumage. It is thence that nearly all our breeds of domestic poultry were originally derived.

The golden pheasants of China, and the Argus pheasants of the East Indian Islands, belong to south-eastern Asia and the Malay regions. The peacock is a native of India. Among insects, the silknorm is a native of China, and was not introduced into Europe until the close of the fifth century.

INHABITANTS.—The *population* of Asia comprehends more than half the human race, and numbers at least 850 millions. China alone is said to contain 400 million people, and India has 280 millions, but the countries of western, central, and northern Asia are much less populous.

Bace and Language.—Numerous diversities are found among the various families of mankind by whom Asia is inhabited; diversities of language, as well as of personal structure, appearance, and colour of skin. More than thirty different languages are spoken in India alone, nearly all of them, however, derived from a common stock—the Sanscrit tongue. Most of the languages of western Asia (and also of Europe) are allied, in their roots, to the same stock. The languages of eastern Asia—China and the Indo-Chinese Peninsula—form a totally different class. The Chinese, the Indo-Chinese, and the Mongolian tribes are distinguished by striking differences of personal appearance from other nations of mankind. They have a yellowish-brown (or olive) complexion; a broad and flattened face, with obliquely-set and deeply-sunk eyes (the inner corner slanting down towards the nose); lank and black hair, with little beard; a broad, square, and thick-set frame, with a stature considerably below that of Europeans. These are the distinguishing characteristics of the Mongolian variety of the human family. The Malays, who inhabit the Malay Peninsula and the islands of the East Indian Archipelago, belong to a distinct stock of nations, regarded as forming another of the leading varieties of makind.

Religion.—Of the two great forms of religion that originated in southwestern Asia, Christianity and Mohammedanism,^{*} the latter has spread over Arabia, Asiatic Turkey, Persia, Turkestan (and to a less extent, Hindustan and Malaysia), while the former is confined to Armenia, Georgia, and numerically unimportant sections of Asiatic Russia and British India. The prevailing religion in India is Brahmanism, from which, about 600 years B.C.,

^{1.} That is, fash-cating (Latin, caro, carnis, fash, and woro, to cat). 2. That is, the class of birds commonly known as poultry, from the Latin, galles, a cock. 3. The wahabi sect of gantral Arabia is of comserver of the sector of gantral Arabia is of comparatively recent origin. (See p. 196).

sprang Buddhism,¹ professed by most of the peoples of the Indo-Chinesse countries, and by large numbers of the lower classes in China and Japan. The Lamaism of Tibet is another form of Buddhism. The religion of the upper classes in China and Japan is Confucianism. Of the minor forms the most interesting is the *investorship* founded by Zoroaster, and which is still professed by the Parsis of India and the Guebres or Ghiaours of Persia. The nomadic tribes of Siberia and central Asia are *heathens*.

DIVISIONS.—By far the larger portion of Asia is held by three powers, two of which are European.

The Russian dominions embrace the whole of the northern part of the continent, a large portion of Central Asia, and the provinces of the Caucasus. Under British control, direct or indirect, is the vast peninsula of India, and the western and southern portions of Further India, besides the islands of Ceylon, Hong Kong, &c. The Chinese Empire comprises China Proper and the adjacent regions of Tibet, Eastern Turkestan and Zungaria, Mongolia, Manchuria, and Corea.

Of the minor powers in Asia, the most important are Japan, on the east, and Turkey and Persia, on the west. France occupies or controls the eastern part of Further India, and also possesses a few small towns in India ; Holland has large and important possessions in the East Indian Archipelago; Spain still maintains its authority over the Philippine Islands; and *Portugal* has a few small settlements such as Goa on the coast of India, Macao off the coast of China, &c.

The following is a list of the countries of Asia, arranged in the order in which they are described :---

- 1. ASIATIO TURKEY.
- 2. ARABIA.
- 3. PERSIA.
- 4. BALUCHISTAN.
- 5. AFGHANISTAN.
- 6. INDIA.

- 7. FURTHER INDIA.
- 8. THE CHINESE EMPIRE.
- 9. ASIATIC RUSSIA.
- 10. THE EAST INDIAN ARCHI-PELAGO.
- 11. JAPAN.

EXAMINATION QUESTIONS.

Why is so great a variety of climate sr-perienced within the limits of Asia?
 "Thick of Asia are within the "Child Cone, which in the Temperate, and which in the Frigid Zone?"
 What characteristic difference is there be-tween the elimates of eastern and western Asia in similar latitudes?
 What kind of elimate do the high table-iad of Asia experience?
 Dividing Asia into three belts or zones, what kind of climate is characteristic of each, and what countries are embraced within each?
 What parts of Asia are distinguished by boundance of rain? By what changes are the seasons known in those localities?".
 What are the monsons, and where do they

What are the monsoons, and where do they prevail?

How do the monsoons affect the climate of India?

9. In what countries of Asia are gold, silver, iron, copper, tin, and coal found? 10. Name some of the fruits that are native to the soil of Asia. 11. Mention some of the forest trees that be-

ane soil of Asia. 11. Mention some of the forest trees that be-long to this division of the globe. 13. Among the cereals (corn) what grain forms the chief fod-plant of southern and south-eastern Asia? 13. To what parts of Asia is the tea plant native?

14. By what kind of vegetation are the table-lands of Central Asia distinguished? 15. Of domesticated quadrupeds, name some of those that are natives of Asia. 18. Within what portions of Asia is the camel

Within where post-found?
 What part of Asia is supposed to have been the original seat of the horse?
 In what region of Asia are the varieties of IS. In what region of Asia are the varieties of

oxen most numerous?

Oran most numerous? 19. Among carnivorous animals, name some that are natives of Asia. 20. In what part of Asia is the lion, tiger, brend, jackal, and wolf found? 21. In what region of Asia are fur-bearing minule common? 22. What class of birds are numerous in south-

22. What class of birds are numerous in south-entern Aria and the neighbouring islands? 23. To what (in round numbers) is the popula-tion of Aria supposed to amount? 94. Which two countries of Aria contain the largest number of inhabitants? 26. In what particular of appearance do the Chinese and the popule of south-eastern Aria differ from other varieties of mankind? 26. Name the countries occupied by the Mon-golians and the Malaya. 27. What are the prevailing religions of 28. Name the countries of Asia.

28. Name the countries of Asia.

Bo called from Sakya Muni, the Buddho (6.4.) 500 B.C. Its extension was rapid, and it has now the enlightened), a Hindu prince, who first pro-more followers (estimated at 455 millions) than pegated its doctrines in northern India about any other religion in the world.

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ASIATIC TURKEY.

The Turkish Dominions in Europe, formerly extensive, but now comparatively small, have been already described. The Sultan's **Asiatic Empire** is much larger, including, as it does, vast territories in Western Asia, which together form a continuous region stretching from the Ægean Sea to the head of the Persian Gulf, and from the Black Sea to the Strait of Bab el Mandeb.

Asiatic Turkey has for its northern boundary the Black Sea, the Bosphorus, the Sea of Marmora, and the Dardanelles. The boundaries on the west are the Egean Sea, the Mediterranean, Arabia Petræa, and the Red Sea; on the south it is limited by Central Arabia; and on the east it is bounded by the Persian Gulf, Persia, and Trans-Caucasia.

This vast territory measures about 2,000 miles from the Black Sea on the north to the Strait of Bab el Mandeb on the south, and about 1,200 miles from Cape Baba on the west to the mouth of the Shat el Arab on the east. The total area is estimated at 730,000 square miles, or 12 times greater than the area of England and Wales.

DIVISIONS.—The Turkish dominions in Asia comprehend three distinct regions :—(1) Asia Minor; (2) Syria; and (3) the countries on the Euphrates and Tigris.

I. ASIA MINOR.

ASIA MINOR¹ is an extensive peninsula, enclosed on three sides by the waters of the Black Sea, the Sea of Marmora, the Ægean Sea, and the Mediterranean.

The Sea of Marmora communicates with the Black Sea by the Strait of Constantinople (or Bosphorus), and with the Archipelago by the Strait of the Dardanelles—the ancient *Hellespont*. The Dardanelles, the Sea of Marmora, and the Strait of Constantinople separate the shores of Asia from those of Europe.

COASTS.—The western coasts of Asia Minor are indented by numerous gulfs, among which those of Mytilene, Smyrna, Samos, and Kos are the most extensive. On the south coast, are the gulfs of Makri, Adalia, and Alexandretta.

The Gulf of Alexandretta or Iskenderún is the extreme eastern angle of the Mediterranean, dividing the shores of Asia Minor and Syria. It is about 45 miles long, and has a mean breadth of about 8 miles. The extreme points of Asia Minor are Cape Injeh, a few miles west of Sinope, on the north; Cape Anamur, on the south; and Cape Baba, the most westerly point of the Asiatic continent, on the west.

ISLANDS.—Numerous islands line the western coasts of Asia Minor, forming part of the extensive region known as the Archi-

^{1.} That is, the Lesser Asia, by distinction from the larger portion of the continent so called.

pelago. Mitylene, Khio, Samos,¹ Kos, and Khodes are the largest amongst them. Off the south coast, in that part of the Mediterranean known as the Levant, is the large and important island of Cyprus.

The capital of **Khio** er Chio, which has an area of about 400 square miles, and, previous to the disastrous earthquake in 1881, had a *population* of 66,000, is the seat of government of all the Turkish islands, except Samos, which enjoys local self-government under a Christian prince. Samos, anciently one of the most renowned of the Greek islands, and the birthplace of Pythagoras, has an area of 200 square miles, and a *population* of 40,000, most of whom are Greeks. **Kos** lice off the gulf of the same name, and is a picturesque and fertile island, producing corn, cotton, wine, ailk, &c. **Rhodes**, "the pearl of the Levant," is a rich and fertile island, the lower grounds producing cora, wine, and fruits, while the uplands are covered with fine forest. The strongly fortified capital, *Rhodes*, which was held by the Knights of St. Joha against the Turks for 214 years (1808-1522), was formerly one of the most magnificent cities in the world. Here, in ancient times, stood the celebrated "Coloasus." **Mitylene** (*population*, 60,000) lies south of Cape Baba, about eight miles distant from the mainland. Its lower plains and valleys are fertile and highly productive, while the slopes of its rugged mountains are covered with pine forests. Its capital, *Castro or Mitylene*, was almost entirely destroyed by an earthquake in 1867.

Cyprus lies in the eastern basin of the Meditarranean, and measures 138 miles in length and 60 miles in breadth. Area, 3,584 square miles. Physically, Cyprus consists of three distinct regions, viz, a chain of mountains in the north, a mountain-region in the south, and a level tract between these mountains, hence called the Mesorea. The eastern part of the Mesorea is watered by the Pedias, the western by the Potamos. The plain is of exceeding fertility, and might be converted into one huge cornfield. There are no navigable rivers. There are several bays and harbours, but not a single harbour capable of giving shelter to a fleet. Except in certain places, the climate is salubrious. At an early period in history, Cyprus became known for its copper, which has indeed taken its name from that of the island itself. When under the Venetians, the *population* was probably about 1,000,000, but at present it is only 200,000, mainly Greeks. Agriculture is carried on under the most primitive manner, and only about eleven per cent. of the total area is cultivated. Some Turkish leather, silk, and cotton stuffs are manufactured. The capital is Nikosia, in the centre of the island. The other chief towns, Famagusta, Larnaka, and Limasol, are on the coast. By a convention signed on the 4th of June, 1878, the Sultan "assigned" Cyprus to England, to be occupied and administered as long as Russis should continue to hold Batum, Ardahan, and Kars.

MOUNTAINS and PLAINS.—The interior of Asia Minor is a plateau, ranging between 2,000 and 3,000 feet above the level of the sea. On the north and south, this plateau descends by successive terraces to the shores of the Black Sea and the Mediterranean; on the west, it gradually declines towards the Ægean seaboard. The most continuous chain of heights is that of the Taurus, which forms the southern border of the plateau towards the Mediterranean.

The highest summits of the Taurus hardly exceed 5,000 feet, but the passes through the chain consist of deep and rugged defiles. Some of the detached mountains of Asia Minor are of greater height: *Mount Argæus*, on the interior

^{1.} About 30 miles south of Samos is Patmos, a | John was exiled, and where he wrote the Revebarren islet, celebrated as the place where St. | lation.

plateau, is upwards of 13,000 feet, and *Mount Olympus*, in the north-west part of the peninsula, reaches 9,000 feet in height. *Mount Ida*, further west and beside the shore of the Ægean Sea, is nearly 5,000 feet.

BIVERS.—The largest river of Asia Minor is the *Kizil Irmak* (the ancient Halys), which flows into the Black Sea. Of the others, the principal are the *Sangarius* (also flowing into the Black Sea); with the *Caïcus*, *Hermus*, *Cayster*, and *Mœander*,¹ which flow into the Ægean Sea.

Lakes.—The largest is the saltwater lake of *Tuz Gol*, situated on the interior tableland. There are, besides, several of smaller size, most of them without any outlet to the sea. They receive many of the smaller streams by which the high plains of the interior are watered.

II. SYRIA.

SYEIA extends along the coast of the Mediterranean, from the Gulf of Iskenderún southward to the border of Egypt. It comprehends a mountain region in the immediate neighbourhood of the coast, and a desert plain in the interior. This desert reaches east to the banks of the Euphrates. The south-westerly portion of Syria is the *Palestine* of sacred history.

COASTS.—From El Arish, on the Egyptian frontier, to Beyrout, the coast is regular, the only inlet being the small Bay of Acre. Thence north to Cape Khanzir it is bolder and more broken.

Capes.—The two chief headlands on the Syrian coast are *Cape Khanzir* and *Cape Carmel*. The former of them marks the southern limit of the Gulf of Alexandretta; Cape Carmel is on the south side of the Bay of Acre.

MOUNTAINS.—The mountains of Syria consist principally of two chains, which stretch in the direction of north and south, parallel to a large portion of the coast. These constitute the *Mount Lebanon* of the Bible, and were known to the Greeks and Romans by the names of Libanus and Anti-Libanus—the former being the chain nearer the coast, and the other the more inland chain. Between the two is a narrow valley—*El Bukaa*, the Coele-Syria (*i.e.*, Hollow Syria). of classical geography. The higher summits of the Lebanon are between nine and ten thousand feet in altitude. *Jebel esh Sheikh*² (the Mount Hermon of Scripture) reaches an altitude of 9,200 feet, and its summit is covered with snow during the greater part of the year. *Dahr el Khotib*, to the north of Mount Hermon, is 10,050 feet in height.

^{1.} These are properly the ancient namesthose by which the rivers are known in classic geography and story. They are more familiar than the modern Turkish names - Sakoria (Sangarius), Bakker Ohas (Daicus), Gedis Chai (Hernms), Kuchouk Menders (Cayster), Menders Ohas (Missander).

² That is, "the Mountain of the Old Man." The word Jebe is the common Arabic term for mountain. Sheikh is the name given to the head of an Arabic tribe or family-commonly an old man. Other common Arabic terms are:--ras. cape; nach, river; bahr, lake; and wady, a. water-course.

The chains of Mount Lebanon do not reach the entire length of the Syrian coast. To the southward of Mount Hermon the country consists of a high plateau, intersected by a deep ravine in the direction of north and south, and declining on the west towards the Mediterranean. This ravine forms the bed of the river Jordan and the Dead Sea.

In the extreme north of Syria there is also a long valley, which lies between the mountain-chain that borders the coast and a more inland range. The river Orontes flows through this valley.

The valley of the Orontes, the plain between the parallel chains of Libanus and Anti-Libanus, with the valley of the Jordan, together form a long and nearly continuous depression, which runs through the whole length of Syria in the direction of north and south. The valley of the Jordan and the bed of the Dead Sea are the deepest part of this depression, which sinks considerably below the average of the earth's surface.

RIVERS.—The two chief rivers of Syria are the Orontes and the Jordan. The former has a northwardly course, and enters the Mediterranean ; the latter flows to the southward, and falls into the Dead Sea after an extremely tortuous course.

1. The Orontes (Nahr el Asy) rises in the upper portion of the valley of Coele-Syria, between the Libanus and Anti-Libanus, and flows north as far as Antakia (Antioch), where it curves west, finally entering the Mediterranean near the port of Suedia (the ancient Seleucia).

2. The Jordan rises on the slopes of Mount Hermon, and flows through Lakes Merom and Tiberias to the Dead Sea. The direct length of the depression through which it flows, from Lake Tiberias to the Dead Sea, is only 70 miles, but the course of the river is so tortuous that it exceeds 200 miles The current of the Jordan is very swift, and there between the same points. are numerous rapids, which render it unnavigable.

LAKES.—The principal are the *Dead Sea* and the *Lake of* Tiberias.

1. The Sea, or rather, Lake of Tiberias, 1 is a body of fresh water : the river Jordan passes through it, and flows thence onward to the Dead Sea. The valley of the Jordan is intensely hot, owing to its great depression below the country upon either side.

2. The Dead Sea² consists of water which is intensely salt³—so much so as to render it unfit (as the name implies) for the support of animal life. No fish exist in its bitter and heavy waters, and the aspect of the surrounding tract of country is arid, desolate, and almost lifeless. The surface of the Dead Sea is nearly 1,800 feet lower than the level of the Mediterranean.

III. COUNTRIES ON THE EUPHRATES AND TIGRIS.

These comprehend a high tableland—the plateau of Armenia—in which the rivers have their origin, and an extensive lowland plain through which they afterwards flow on their way to the Persian Gulf.

^{1.} Also called the "Sea of Galilee," "Sea of Gennesaret," and the "Sea of Chinnereth." The Turkish name is "Bakr Tabariya," the "Sea of Tiberia."

^{2.} Known to the ancients as Lacus Asphaltites, portion of from the asphalt or bitumen which floats on its per cent).

waters. The modern Turkish name is Bakr Let, the "Sea of Lot." 3. The proportion of saline ingredients is about 25 per cent, that is, seven times the usual pro-portion of salis in the waters of the ocean is or 4

MOUNTAINS.—The plateau of Armenia lies at an elevation of 6,000 feet above the sea, and the mountains by which it is crossed reach 4,000 feet and upwards above its level—so that their summits are more than 10,000 feet above the sea.

Plains.—Below the mountain region, to the south-eastward, are the plains of El Jezireh and Irak Arabi, through which the Euphrates and Tigris flow. The Plain of El Jezireh (which coincides with the ancient *Mesopotamia*) is enclosed between the rivers, which are there at a wide distance apart. The Plain of Irak Arabi, further to the south-east, and at a lower level, corresponds to the ancient *Babylonia*.

BIVERS.—The *Euphrates* and *Tigris* are the chief rivers of this region. The Euphrates, which is 1,700 miles long, is the largest river in Western Asia. The Tigris, which is 1,100 miles in length, joins the Euphrates about 100 miles above the Persian Gulf; the united stream bears locally the name of Shat el Arab, or the "River of the Arabs."

1. The **Euphrates** is formed by the junction of two streams, one of which rises in the Soghanly Mountains, and the other in the Armenian Mountains near Bayazid. Breaking through the Taurus chain, it flows through the broad Plain of Irak Arabi, in a generally south-easterly direction to Kurnah, where it is joined by the Tigris. The only large tributary is the *Khabur*, which flows from the Highlands of Kurdistan, and joins the Euphrates at Kerkesiyeh. This great river is historically famous from the fact that on its banks stood BABYLON, the capital of the old Babylonian Empire. It is navigable for river steamers for 1,100 miles.

2. The **Tigris** rises in the Armenian highlands, and near Mosul (opposite which are the ruins of **NINEVEH**, the famous capital of the ancient Assyrian Empire) enters the plain, through which it flows south-eastwards to Kurnah, where it joins the Euphrates. The principal tributaries are the *Great Zab*, the *Little Zab*, and the *Divalah*, all on the left bank. At Bagdad, the Tigris bends to within 20 miles of the Euphrates.

Lakes.—*Lake Van* is within the Turkish portion of the Armenian Plateau. It is about 80 miles long and 30 broad, and lies at an elevation of more than 5,000 feet above the sea. A few rivers flow into it from the adjacent highlands, but it has no outlet, and consequently its waters are salt.

CLIMATE.—The climate of Asiatic Turkey is for the most part warm, but is greatly varied by the inequalities of elevation and physical aspect which distinguish its different regions.

The winters of the Armenian tableland are excessively severe, and the heat of summer is also intense. The interior of Asia Minor exhibits similar differences of temperature, though in a more moderate degree. The coast regions of Syria and Asia Minor have generally a warm and delightful climate. The seasons of rain and drought are of regular recurrence, and the operations of agriculture are of necessity regulated by them.¹

PRODUCTIONS.—The vegetable and mineral productions of Asiatic Turkey are varied and valuable, nevertheless, as in European Turkey, the great natural wealth of the country is but little developed.

Among the productions are a variety of rich fruits-raisins, figs, almonds, oranges, &c .- and other valuable plants. The vine grows luxuriantly in the watered valleys, and the date-pain flourishes on the borders of the desert. Wheat, barley, rice, and mairs, with tobacco, hemp, and flax, are also grown. The mineral products include coal, together with rich ores of iron, lead, copper, and other useful metals, none of which are worked to any extent.

Horses, cattle, sheep, and goats are bred in large numbers, but the camel is the ordinary beast of burden. Silkworms are largely reared in Asia Minor and Syris, and there are important sponge fisheries off the Mediterranean coast.

INHABITANTS.-The population of Turkey in Asia is estimated to amount to 16th millions, an average of only 22 persons to the square mile.

Race and Language.-The inhabitants of Asiatic Turkey form a motley assemblage of various nations, comprising—besides Turks, the ruling people —Greeks, Syrians, Jews, Arabs, Armenians, Turkomans, Kurds, Drusse, and many other tribes of mountaineers. The Turks themselves are relatively many other tribes of mountaineers. The Turks themselves are relatively more numerous in Asiatic Turkey than in the European provinces of the empire, and constitute a majority of the whole. The official language is, of course, the Turkish, but it has never supplanted any of the numerous lan-guages in common use among the various nations. In fact, so great is the diversity in race and language of the peoples of Asiatic Turkey, that, al-though at present politically united, it seems improbable that they will ever fuse into one nation. No less than 13 millions are Mohammedans; the Greeks and American profess (thritight is and there are about 250 000 Laws and Armenians profess Christianity,¹ and there are about 250,000 Jews.

INDUSTRIES.—Industrial pursuits generally are at a low ebb. The bulk of the population is engaged in agriculture, which, however, is pursued in a very inefficient manner, and scanty harvests are of frequent occurrence.

Some manufactures of silk and cotton fabrics, leather, and various articles of an ornamental description, are carried on in the larger towns. The Turkey carpets, woven by the women of the nomad tribes in the interior of Asia Minor, are highly prized both in Europe and in the East. But almost all the textile and metal industries of the country, many of them at one time carried on on a large scale, have been practically ruined by European competition, and the famous silks and swords of Damascus, the muslins of Mosul, &c., are now superseded by European goods.

Commerce.—The amount of foreign trade is considerable. It is carried on chiefly with Great Britain and other European countries, from various ports on the coasts of Asia Minor and Syria ; and with the countries to the east by means of caravans, which cross the Syrian and Arabian deserts.

Smyrna, on the coast of the Ægean Sea; Trebizond, on the Black Sea; Beyrout, on the Syrian coast; and Basra, on the Shat el Arab, near the head of the Persian Gulf, are the principal seats of maritime trade. The cities of Aleppo, Damascus, Bagdad, and Erzerum are the chief centres of the caravan traffic.

The staple *exports* are **fruits**—raisins, figs, oranges, &c.—wine, opium, olives, gums, wax, sponge, meerschaum, corn, cotton, raw slik, tobacco, camel's hair, Angora wool, and other native products and manufactured goods, such as shawls and carpets from Smyrna, Turkey leather, &c. The chief *imports* are textile fabrics and metal wares.

The means of communication are very defective, and the internal trade is carried on mostly by caravans, there being few good *roads*, and only about 400 miles of *railway*.

GOVERNMENT.—Asiatic Turkey is under the same general government as Turkey in Europe. The Sultan, resident at Constantinople, delegates authority to the various Pashas, who exercise nearly absolute rule in the different vilayets, or provinces.

DIVISIONS.—The whole of Asiatic Turkey is divided into *Vilayets* or pashaliks, each under the government of a Pasha. Each vilayet is divided into *Sanjaks* or provinces, which are subdivided into *Kazas* or districts.

For convenience of description, the vilayets and towns of Asiatic Turkey are arranged under the three great divisions of Asia Minor, Syria, and the Countries on the Euphrates and Tigris.

ASIA MINOR comprehends the vilayets or governments of **Trebizond**, Kastamuni, Sivas, Angora, Konieh, Adana, all of which are named after their chief towns, and include the country to the north and east of the Gulf of Adalia. The western division of the peninsula includes the vilayets of Khodavendikiar or Brusa (capital, Brusa), Karassi (capital, Balikesri), and Aidin (capital, Smyrna). The capital of the Turkish islands is Khio.

SMYBNA (200), is the largest city of Asia Minor and a chief emporium for the trade of the Levant.¹ The population comprises an unusual number of Greeks and other Europeans, by whom an extensive commerce is carried on. Smyrna derives interest from its antiquity; it existed many centuries before the Christian era, and was one of the most famous cities of *Ionia*. It has also the distinction of being one of the Seven Churches of the Apocalypse.

Brusa or Broussa (36), the ancient *Prusa* of Bithynia, lies at the foot of *Mount Olympus*; not far to the eastward are the small towns of Isnik (the ancient *Niccea*), and Izmid, the *Nicomedia* of ancient story. The latter place lies at the head of an arm of the Sea of Marmora. Both Kutalah (60) and Angora (30)—the ancient *Ancyra*—are inland cities, the latter famous for the breed of goats, with fine silky hair, that are

^{1.} The castern part of the Mediterranean is commonly called the Levant. The name is Italian in its origin, and signifies the East.

reared in its neighbourhood. Angora, like so many other among the cities of western Asia, has also historic fame. Sinope 1 is a seaport on the Black Sea, about the middle of the coast-line which forms the northern side of the peninsula. Sivas (48), the chief place in the vilayet of the same name, lies near the upper course of the Kizil Irmak (the ancient Halys), a river which once formed the limit between the empires of Lydia and Media. Trebizond (45), the Trapezus of classic story, is a flourishing seaport, and possesses the chief part of the commerce of the Euxine. Konish (25), on the interior plains within the southern division of the peninsula, is chiefly interesting as representing the ancient *Iconium*, familiar in connection with the history of St. Paul. Kaisarieh (60), the ancient Casarea of Cappadocia, and a place of considerable trade, lies at the base of Mount Argeus. Adana and Tersus (the ancient Tarsus)— the former on the river Sihun (the ancient Sarus), the latter on the little stream of the Tersus (the ancient Cydnus)-lie in the Cilician plain to the south of the Taurus Mountains. Tarsus was distinguished as the birthplace of the Apostle Paul. Marash is further to the north-east, near the river Jihun—the Pyramus of ancient geography.

.. Nearly every part of Asia Minor (and, indeed, of Western Asia in general) exhibits remains of antiquity; its plains and hillsides, its rivers and mountain passes are richly stored with historic associations, and its towns—now often in ruins—display the abundant traces of former splendour. Troy stood in the north-western corner of this peninsula; Smyrna, Ephesus, Miletus, and other famous cities of Ionia were on its western shores; Sardis, Philadelphia, Laodicea, Niccea, Angora, Iconium, Casarea, on its interior plains. The invincible phalanx of the Macedonian conqueror^s in ancient times, and the armies of the Crusaders in a more recent period, have marched through its plains, and the footsteps of Christian apostles have imparted sanctity to its soil.

SYRIA⁴ embraces the three divisions of Aleppo, the Lebanon, and Syria Proper. Its south-western portion corresponds to the ancient Palestine-the allotted inheritance of the Jewish nation, and the "Holy Land" of the Christian.

The chief cities of modern Syria are Damascus, Aleppo, Homs, Hamah, Antioch, Jerusalem, Nablus, and Tiberias-all of them inland ; with Beyrout, Tripoli, Latakia, Sidon, Tyre, Acre, Jaffa, and Gaza, which are on or near the coast. Jerusalem, Nablus, Tiberias, Jaffa, and Gaza fall within the former limits of the Holy Land.

DAMASCUS⁵ (200) is now the largest inland city of Syria, and a great centre of caravan trade. It stands in a fertile plain at the foot of the range of Anti-Libanus, and beside the little stream of the Barada, the *Abana* of Scripture (II. Kings v., 12).

Lebanon. Lebanon and the faland of Samos are under Christian governors, the rest under Turklah governors. 5. Damascus, Turk, Dimashk; the fabric known as downask was first made in, and takes its name

The Turkiah fleet was destroyed here in 1853.
 That is, the Black See—the Postus Kuzinus of ancient geography, whence the name of Euxine is often given to it.
 Alerander the Great.
 Syria is divided into 6 vilayets, namely:-- Aleppo, Zor, Syria. Beyrout, Jerusalem, and

from this town.

Aleppo (120), in northern Syria, was formerly more populous, but it has been repeatedly injured by earthquakes,¹ to which every part of Syria is more or less liable. Homs and Hamah are both within the valley of the Orontes, the chief river of northern Syria. Hamah corresponds to the Hamath of Scripture. The most famous locality within the valley of the Orontes is Antakia or Antioch—no longer the magnificent city of a former age, but a small provincial town. It stands a few miles above the mouth of the Orontes, on the southern bank of the river. Alexandretta² or Iskenderûn, the most northerly of the Syrian coast-towns, stands on the shore of the gulf called by its name, and serves as the port of Aleppo. Latakia (the ancient Lacoticea), now chieffy noted for the tobacco grown in its vicinity, is to the south of the Orontes. Tripoit and Beyrout follow in the same direction. Beyrout (40) constitutes the port of Damascus, and is now the chief seat of Syrian commerce. To the south of Beyrout are Saida (the ancient Sidon); Sûr (the Tyre of antiquity); and Acre, the Accho or Piolemais of Scripture and the St. Jean d'Acre of the Crusaders; all three are now comparatively small places, but Acre is a strong fortress. The Bay of Acre is bounded on the south by the promotory of Carmel, which is within the limits of the Holy Land.

The most important locality in Palestine is **JERUSALEM**³ (70), which stands on a rocky platform—enclosed on three sides by deep ravines—about midway between the Mediterranean and the Dead Sea. Jerusalem, consecrated by our Saviour's sufferings, has for centuries remained a mere Turkish provincial town, but the recent persecutions in Russia have caused an enormous influx of Jews into Palestine, and there are now 50,000 of them in Jerusalem alone, while large numbers have settled in other parts of their ancient land.

Bethlehem, the scene of our Lord's nativity, is a village lying a few miles south of Jerusalem. Hebron is further south; it contains the *Cave* of Machpelah, regarded as holy alike by Mohammedans and Jews. Jaffa (the ancient Joppa), on the coast, is the port of Jerusalem, and a place of some trade. A railway from Jaffa to Jerusalem is now being constructed. Nablus—the Shechem of Scripture and the Neapolis of the Greek writers —is to the north of Jerusalem, midway between the Mediterranean coast and the valley of the Jordan. Sebastieh (the ancient Samaria) is to the west of Nablus. Nazareth is further north, and only five miles distant from the base of Mount Tabor, which rises in conical form above the fertile valley of Esdraëlon. Tiberias is a small city lying on the western shore of the beautiful Lake of Tiberias, or Sea of Galilee. Gaza, in the south-west of Palestine, is of some commercial importance, derived from its position on the line of route between Syria and Egypt. It occupies the site of the ancient Gaza, one of the chief cities of the Philistines.

.. Among the numerous remains of former greatness which belong to Syria, two sites command special notice on account of their architectural beauty. These are **Baalbec** and **Palmyra**. The former lies to the north-west of

Damascus, in the valley which is enclosed between the parallel chains of Libanus and Anti-Libanus; it represents the ancient city of Heliopolis, and still exhibits the remains of its magnificent temples. Palmyra, the Tadmor son exhibits the remains of its magnineent temples. Fainyra, the Tadmor of Scripture, is to the north-eastward of Damascus, within a small casis in the heart of the Syrian Desert. It has the beautiful remains of an ancient temple of the sun. The desert, which borders the highlands of Syria to the eastward, and which stretches thence to the banks of the Euphrates, exhibits features which differ in some essential particulars from those that are com-monly associated with the idea of the wilderness. It has no perennial streams, and hence during the summar and antumn months when it is nearched her and hence, during the summer and autumn months, when it is parched by the sun's burning rays, exhibits an arid and comparatively lifeless surface, except only where an occasional spring of water creates a surrounding oasis. But at other seasons, when the rains of winter and early spring refresh the flowers of the most brilliant hue. This is the "glory of the wilderness," destined to pass away with the returning heat of summer.

The COUNTRIES ON THE EUPHRATES AND TIGRIS comprehend the Vilayets or provinces of Erzerum, Van, Bayazid, Bitlis, Diarbekir, Bagdad. Mosul. and Basra-all of them named after their chief towns.

The first three of these vilayets belong physically to the high tableland of Armenia. The last three embrace the valleys of the Euphrates and the Tigris below the mountain region. The vilayets of Bitlis and Diarbekir are both included in the region known as KURDISTAN, which lies between Asia Minor and Persia, and consists principally of rugged mountain chains, with intervening valleys.

The city of Erzerum (60) stands near the source of the more northwardly of the two arms of the Euphrates, on a high plain, 6,000 feet above the sea. Kars, noted for its galfant defence in 1855 and 1877, lies to the northeast of Erzerum. Along with Ardahan and Batum, it was ceded to Russia in 1878. Bayazid is near the base of Mount Ararat, and close to the point where the frontiers of Turkey, Persia and Russia converge. The town of Van (30) stands on the east shore of the extensive lake called by its name. Bitlis (25) the most considerable place in Kurdistan, is not far from the south-western shore of Lake Van, on a stream which joins the Togris. Diarbekir (40), the ancient Amida, is on the Tigris, forty miles below its source. The city of Urfah or Orfah (20), the Edessa of the Crusaders, lies within the plain of El Jezireh, south of the mountain region. This plain coincides with the Mesopotamia¹ of Greek geography, and the Padan-Aram, or Aram-Naharaim, of the early Scripture history. Mosul² (45), on the right or western bank of the Tigris, is chiefly noteworthy from its proximity to the remains of Nineveh, on the opposite bank of this river. Bagdad^s (180), on the Tigris, is the great city of this region-superior in size and population to any other city in the eastern division of Asiatic Basra (40) -formerly of more note as a commercial city than Turkey. at present-lies on the Shat el Arab, below the junction of the Euphrates and the Tigris.

2 The fine cotton cloth called muslin was originally manufactured at Mosul, hence the name

3. Founded. A.D. 762. Taken by Tamerlane, 1401.

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^{1.} That is, "in the middle of the rivers"—the Euphrates and Tigris. Aram-Naharaim (Syria-between-the-Rivers) has the same meaning in Hebrew.

ASIATIC TURKEY.

. The plain of Irak Arabi (as the lower portion of the region watered by the Euphrates and Tigris is called) is the Babylonia of ancient geography. It is now a marshy tract, even more thinly peopled than other parts of Asiatic Turkey, and the sands of the adjoining desert press closely on the western bank of the Euphrates. But every portion of the plain exhibits remains of former population and culture.

Among the many ancient sites which belong to the lands watered by the Euphrates and Tigris, two attract especial notice. These are NINEVEH and BABYLON. the former the capital of the Assyrian, and the latter that of the Babylonian, Empire. The remains of Nineveh are found on the eastern bank of the Tigris, opposite the modern city of Mosul. The ruins of Babylon lie on either bank of the Euphrates, in the neighbourhood of the small modern town of Hillah (to the south of Bagdad). The treasures of ancient art, brought within recent years from the site of Nineveh, have enriched our museums. The remains of Babylon have not yet been fully explored.

QUESTIONS ON ASIATIC TURKEY.

How is Asiatic Turkey bounded?
 What three great divisions does it embrace?
 Point to each on the map.
 What straits and itsent?
 What islands adjoin the western and southern shores of Asia Minor?
 What kind of country (as to physical features) is the interior of Asia Minor?
 Twhat kind of country (as to physical features) is the interior of Asia Minor?
 In what part of Asia Mino?
 In what part of Asia Minor are Mounts Argeus, Olympus, and Ida?
 Name the principal rivers of Asia Minor, and the seas into which they flow.
 Point out on the map the limits of Syria in the direction of north, south, and east.
 What mountain-region adjoins the coast of sumit?
 What be and what is the name of the highest summit?

summit? 10. What two rivers flow through the long valley which stretches through Syria? 11. Name and point out on the map the two principal lakes that belong to the valley of the

principal lakes that belong to the valley of the Jordan. 12. What kind of region do the rivers Euphra-tes and Tigris water? 13. What lake is within the Turkish portion of Armenia? 14. State with you know concerning the climate output state you know concerning the plants that on some of the productions of Asiatio Turkey.

In the that are among the productions of Asiatic Turkey.
16. In what parts of Turkey in Asia is coal found? What other metals occur?
17. What other metals occur?
18. What other metals occur?
18. What other metals occur?
19. What other metals occur?
19. What other metals occur?
19. What three cites are the chief sects of the maritime commores of Turkey in Asia? What will be all target in Asia divided? How many of these division are within Asia Minor?
20. In what part of Asia Minor are the following places --Smyrna, Brusa, Konieh, Trebizond, and Adam? Find out their places on the man.
21. With what ancient cities do Brusa, Konieh, Isnik, Izmid, Angora, and Kaisarieh correspond?

22. On what river does Sivas stand, and what empires did it divide? 23. Point out Tarsus on the map. By what is Tarsus distinguished, and on what river does it

Stand? 34. Montion some of the great cities of anti-quity that were situated within Asia Minor. 29. What portion of Syria corresponds to Palestine or the Holy Land? Point to this part

Palestine or the Holy Land? Point to this part on the map. Syria, pointing out their places on the map. Which amongst them are within Palestine? 27. Name the chief maritime cities of Syria. 23. On what river does Damacus stand? By what name is this river referred to in Scripture? 29. On what river does Anticoch stand? What other towns are within the valley of the same stream?

stream? 30. To what ancient cities do the modern towns

30. To what and entitled as do hat modern towns of Latakia, Saida, Soir, and Acre correspond? 31. What kind of site does Jerusalem occup? 32. Where are Bethlehem, Hebron, Nazareth, Tiberias, and Gaza? Point them out upon the

and the set of the set o

Desert? 36. Where is Kurdistan, and what kind of a country is it? 37. Where are Erzerum, Kars, Bayazid, Van,

country is 15?
37. Where are Erzerum, Kars, Bayazid, Van, and Diarbekir?
38. Where are Urfah and Mosul? To what city of a former period does Urfah correspond?
39. Where are the plains of El Jezireh and Irak Arabi? By what names were they formerly

40. Where are Bagdad and Basra? For what is

 Where are bagant and bagant and bagant the Tigris?

ARABIA.

ARABIA¹ is a large country in the south-west of Asia, and forms the most westerly of the three vast peninsulas of southern Asia.

BOUNDARIES.—Arabia is bounded on the north by Syria, on the west by the Red Sea, on the south by the Gulf of Aden and the Arabian Sea, and on the east by the Gulf of Oman and the Persian Gulf.

EXTENT.—Its area is estimated at 1¹/₄ million square miles, or about twenty times greater than that of England and Wales.

A straight line from the head of the Gulf of Akaba to Ras el Had measures about 1,650 miles. The distance from Mocha on the Red Sea to Muscat on the Gulf of Oman is about 1,250 miles. In the north, the Peninsula narrows to about 800 miles between Makna, on the Gulf of Akaba, and Koweit (Korein), near the head of the Persian Gulf.

COASTS.—The Arabian peninsula is washed on three sides—on the east, the south, and the west—by the sea.

The Red Sea, which forms the western limit of Arabia, divides, at its northern extremity, into two gulfs. The more westerly of these is called the **Gulf** of Suez (connected by the Suez Canal with the Mediterranean), the more eastwardly is the **Gulf of Akaba**. The tract enclosed between them is the **Peninsula of Sinai**. The shores of the Red Sea are lined by coral reefs, which make the navigation dangerous; but its mid-channel is open and deep. The Strait of Bab el Mandeb connects the Red Sea with the Gulf of Aden and the Indian Ocean. The **Persian Gulf** has on its western side an extensive submarine bank, upon which pearl-fishing is pursued. The **Strait of Ormuz** connects the Persian Gulf with the Gulf of Oman, which opens into the Indian Ocean.

Of the few *islands* of Arabia, the only noteworthy ones are the **Farsan** and **Kamaran Islands** in the Red Sea, off the coast of Yemen; **Perim**, in the Strait of Bab el Mandeb; the **Kuria Muria Islands**, off the south coast; and the **Bahrein Islands**, the centre of a flourishing pearl-fishery, in the Persian Gulf, off the coast of El Hassa—all of which islands, except Farsan, either belong to, or are under the protection of, Great Britain.

NATURAL FEATURES.—Arabia has mountain chains lying in a parallel direction to its seaward borders—west, south, and east —and there are also some high ranges upon the interior plateau.

1. Of the coast mountains, the most important are those which nearly fill the small Peninsula of Sinai. The highest peak of the Sinai Mountains reaches 9,300 feet above the sea. A minor chain also skirts the south coast, from Aden on the west to the highlands of Oman in the south-east of the peninsula. Jebel Akhdar, in Oman, attains an elevation of 9,900 feet above the sea.

2. The interior plateau includes a series of high and desert plains, destitute of perennial streams, but generally adapted for pasturage. This central table-



^{1.} Called by the Arabs "Jezerest El Arab," 2. i.e., the twisted mountain. the Peninsula of the Arabs.

ARABIA.

land is known as the Neid, and culminates in the Jebel Toweyk range, which has an average height of 3,000 feet above the sea. The highlands of the Neid are bounded on the north by a narrow neck of the Neiud or Sandy Desert, beyond which lies the minor plateau of Jebel Shammar, which is crossed by two ranges, the Jebel Aja and Jebel Selman. The highest point in the former is supposed to be about 6,000 feet above the sea. A much greater expanse of desert lies between Jebel Shammar and the fertile and well-peopled oasis of Jof, to the north-west.

3. The Arabian Desert presents, for the most part, a gravelly or sandy surface, but is in some places covered with high and barren masses of hill, forming a rocky or stony wilderness. This is the case in the north-western portion of the country—including the Sinai Peninsula, and the adjacent tract towards the border of Syria—which forms the *Arabia Petroza*¹ (i.e., the Rocky Arabia) of ancient geography. But the *Nefud* or Sandy Desert, between Jof and the Nejd, is not, as generally supposed, destitute of vegetation; on the contrary, "not only are the hollows well clothed with grass, but also every part of the plain."

A low and narrow plain—called the **Tehama**—stretches round the coast of the Arabian peninsula, between the sea and the adjacent mountain region. This plain is arid, destitute of water, and intensely hot.

Arabia has neither *rivers* nor *lakes.* There are numerons water-courses or *wadys*—that is, beds of streams—which become rapid torrents during the season of rain, but are dry for the greater part of the year.

CLIMATE.—The climate of Arabia is hot and dry, except, perhaps, in the higher parts of the mountain regions, towards the coast. The narrow belt of the Tehama is intensely hot and arid, even more so on the side of the Persian Gulf than on the other coasts of the peninsula. Rain very seldom falls in this region.

Contrary to the generally received opinion that the Nefud or Sandy Desert of the interior was periodically swept by the pestilential simoom, Mr. Blunt states that while "sand-storms were common but not dangerous to travellers, the simoom was not even known by name," and that his guide "denied positively that such a phenomenon had occurred within his forty years' experience."

PRODUCTIONS.—The only parts of Arabia that possess natural fertility are found within the mountain region chiefly towards the south-western borders of the peninsula. Rain is here more frequent, and there are perennial springs. This was accordingly distinguished by the ancients as *Arabia Felix* or Arabia the Happy.

The vine, fig, peach, almond, and many other fruits flourish in this region, and the coffice-shrub is abundantly cultivated. The date-palm also flourishes there, and is found, besides, in every oasis of the Arabian Desert.

INHABITANTS.—Arabia is supposed to have not less than 12,000,000 inhabitants, but nothing certain is known on this head.

There is a characteristic difference between the Arabs of the desert, who dwell in tents and wander from one place to another, and the dwellers in towns, who have fixed places of abode. The Arabs of the desert are called Bedouins,

^{1.} Greek, petra, a rock. The ancients divided | south-west; and Arabia Deserta, or the Desert, Arabia into Arabia Petraz, or the Rocky, in the in the centre. north-west; Arabia Petraz, or the Happy, in the |

and their way of life naturally leads to numerous points of difference between them and the dwellers in fixed habitations. Their wealth consists in their flocks and herds—absop, goats, camels, and horses. They look with contempt on the dwellers in towns, and the sense of freedom which accompanies existeuce in the wilderness compensates for the many deprivations which such a way of life involves. Even in the descrt, however, there are recognised limits to the different tribes beyond which they never pass.

Religion.—By far the greater majority of the Arabs profess Mohammedanism; and the region of the KI Hejaz, bordaring on the Red Sea, is indeed the Holy Land of the Mohammedans, as it contains MECCA, the birthplace, and MEDIFA, the burialplace, of Mohammed. The people of the Nejd belong to the Wahabee sect, founded about \triangle . D. 1750 by Abd el Wahab, a Mohammedan reformer, who sought to restore the religion to its original purity by following the strict letter of the Koran.

INDUSTRIES.—There is little of manufacturing industry in Arabia, but the trade which passes through parts of the country is considerable. This is wholly carried on by *caravans*, that is, companies of persons, who associate together for mutual protection in crossing the wilderness, consisting of merchants, guides, soldiers, pilgrims, and various followers, with their camels and horses.

The camel is uniformly employed as the beast of burden, and that animal is peculiarly suited to the passage of the arid wastes of Western and Central Asia. The cararan traversing the Arabian or the Syrian Desert, with its attendant train of camels, is the earliest and most enduring of the pictures of Oriental life, and all its essential features are the same now that they were upwards of three thousand years ago.

GOVERNMENT.—The people of Arabia have been from the earliest ages divided into tribes, the government of which is patriarchal, that is, the head of each tribe—or *sheikh*, as he is termed occupies, in regard to its members, the place of the father of a family. The laws, customs, and institutions of Arabia all proceed upon this assumption of patriarchal authority—the only mode of government suited to the dwellers in the wilderness.

Arabia has, consequently, never been subject, as a whole, to any single power. The Emir of the Wahabees was a few years ago the most powerful of the native rulers; but at present the Wahabee sultanate of the Neid has been divided into three States, and the supreme power in Central Arabia has passed into the hands of the Emir of Jebel Shammar, who resides in the fortified town of Hail. The whole of Oman, in the south-east, is still nominally subject to the Sultan of Muscat, its chief town. The country between the south and the desert, known as Hadramaut, is occupied by independent Bedouin tribes, who own no sovereignty but that of their own chiefs. The region of El Hejaz is nominally subject to the Sultan of Turkey, who is represented by an officer (styled the great Sherif) resident at Mecca. Yemen forms one of the Turkiah vilayets. El Hassa, the conquered district bordering on the Persian Gulf, is styled by the Turks, "our vilayet of Neid," but the Turks have no influence whatever over any of the tribes of Central Arabia, although the Emirs of Riad and Jebel Shammar pay a nominal tribute as an acknowledgment of the succentity of the Sultan. The Sinai region falls within the dominions of the Khedive of Egypt. Aden is a British possession, and the adjoining territory is under British protection. Northern Arabia includes the Sinai mountain region, which is politically attached to Egypt, and the great desert between the Gulf of Akaba and the head of the Persian Gulf, which is broken only by the fertile and populous oasis of *El Jof*.

The Sinai mountain region, situate at the head of the Red Sea, fills the small peninsula between the Gulfs of Suez and Akaba, and the high grounds which it comprises stretch thence to the southern borders of Syria. Wandering Arabs or Bedouins are almost the sole inhabitants of the entire region, which is a wilderness of rocks and mountains, alternating with arid plains and gravelly beds of torrents, destitute of running water during three-fourths of the year. This region was the scene of the forty years' wandering of the Israelites. Mount Sinai, whence the Law was delivered to the assembled tribes, is found among the central and highest cluster of mountains, in the very heart of the peninsula.

A long valley, known as the Wady el Arabah, stretches northward from the head of the Gulf of Akaba to the southern limits of the Dead Sea, in the same general direction as the depression which reaches through the whole length of Syria. The mountains which border this valley on its eastern side are the *Mount Seir* of the Bible, and one of them coincides with *Mount Hor*, the scene of Aaron's death. The ancient city of *Petra*—now marked by the numerous tombs cut in the solid rock—is found within a deep recess in the heart of the mountains, near the eastern foot of Mount Hor.

Western Arabia is politically divided into the two Turkish Vilayets of *El Hejaz* and *El Yemen*.

The region of El Hejaz is the Holy Land of the Mohammedans. It includes the cities of **MECCA** (45) and **Medina**—the former the birthplace, and the latter the burial-place, of Mohammed, the Arabian prophet. Mecca is the Holy City for perhaps 200 millions of people, Mohammedans of all sects and nations turning towards it at the hour of prayer. Jidda (30), on the Red Sea, is the port of Mecca; **Yembo** is the port of Medina, which is 130 miles inland. **SANA** (50), the chief city of Yemen, is in the heart of the coffee district, about 100 miles from the coast. **Mocha**, on the Red Sea, was formerly its chief port, but it is now supplanted by **Hodeida**, which is further northward.

Southern Arabia includes the vast territory of *Hadramaut*, and the British Colonv and Protectorate of *Aden*.

Hadramaut is occupied by independent Bedouin tribes, who may be so far regarded as within the British "sphere of influence," but not directly controlled like the people within the colony of Aden and the adjoining Protectorate.

Aden, situated on the shore of the gulf of that name eastward of the Strait of Bab el Mandeb, belongs to Britain, and is a station on the line of communication between England and India by way of the Mediterranean and the Red Sea.

Eastern Arabia includes the Turkish Vilayet of *El Hassa*, and the Sultanate of *Oman*.

El Hassa includes the coast territory between the head of the Persian Gulf and the peninsula of Katar. The chief places are El Khatif, Koweit or Korein, and El Hofuf.

The **Sultanate of Oman** includes the whole of the south-eastern extension of the peninsula. **Muscat** (60), or Maskat, the capital, is situated on the coast about 100 miles north of Ras el Had, the easternmost headland of the peninsula. Muscat is the largest town in Arabia, and is noted for its pearl fisheries, dates, and other products, in which a large trade is done with the surrounding countries. The Sultanate of Oman, nominally independent, is practically under British protection, and the Imam or Sultan has long enjoyed "a close alliance with England, which, while adding to his prestige among his own people, guarantees him from any overt acts on the part of Turkey and Persia."

Central Arabia includes the whole of the interior plateau from Hadramant on the south to the Syrian Desert on the north.

Central Africa is, and always has been, in the undisputed possession of the native Arab tribes, some of whom are nomads, living in tents, and moving which their horses and camels, sheep and goats, from one pasturage to another. There are, however, two permanent political organisations—the Wahabee State of Nejd (capital *Riad*), and the Sultanate of Jebel Shammar, whose capital, *Hati*, is a walled town, with 20,000 inhabitants, and an important station on the Persian pilgrim-route from Bagdad to Mecca.

QUESTIONS ON ARABIA.

1. How is Arabia bounded? What is its general shape?

By what is the Red Sea distinguished? Into what gulfs does its northern extremity divide?
 What straits connect the Red Sea and the Persian Gulf with the ocean?

4. What are the general features of Arabia as to mountains and plains? 5. What kind of aspect has the Arabian Desert?

6. Where is the region called the Tehema?
7. Which part of the country was distinguished by the ancients as (a) Arabia Petres, (b) Arabia Feirza.

8. What kind of climate has Arabia?

9. Into what two classes are the people of Arabia divided?

10. By what name are the Arabs of the Desert called, and what is their mode of life?

11. What kind of commerce does Arabia pos

posses? 12. Under what kind of government are the people of Arabia?

13. Which are the most important among the native rulers?

14. What provinces are subject to the Sultan of Turkey?

15. Name the present divisions of Arabia.

16. In which division of Arabia are the towns of Mecca and Medina? What town is the port of (a) Mecca, (b) Medina?

17. Where are Muscat, Sana, Mocha, Hodeida, Riad, and Hail?

18. By what great event is the Sinai region dis-tinguished?

19. In what part of Arabis, and near the foot of what mountain, is the ruined city of Petra?

20. Which division of Arabia is distinguished as the Holy Land of the Mohammedans? And why?

21. Where is Aden? For what is it note-worthy?

22. What do you know of Hadramaut, Oman, El Hassa, El Hejaz, and Yemen?

PERSIA.

PERSIA is a country of Western Asia. It embraces the westerly and larger portion of an extensive plateau which stretches from the Hindu-Kush to the Mountains of Armenia, and from the borders of the Caspian Sea to those of the Persian Gulf.

BOUNDARIES.—Persia is bounded on the *north* by Trans-Caspia, the Caspian Sea, and Trans-Caucasia; on the west, by Asiatic Turkey; on the south, by the Persian Gulf and the Gulf of Oman; and, on the east, by Afghanistan and Baluchistan.

EXTENT.—According to the latest estimates, Persia contains an area of 628,000 square miles, or a little more than eleven times that of England and Wales.

The greatest length, from west to east, is 900 miles.

The greatest breadth, from north to south, is 800 miles.

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PERSIA.

COASTS.-The Caspian Sea on the north, the Persian Gulf and Gulf of Oman on the south, wash the shores of Persia. Its northern coast-line is about 300 miles long, and its southern, 1,200; total, 1,500, equivalent to 1 mile of coast to every 430 square miles of area.

1. The Caspian Sea is the largest strictly inland body of water in the world, being upwards of 600 miles long and from 100 to 200 miles broad, and covering an area of about 150,000 square miles. Although called a "sea, it has no communication with the ocean, and its surface is considerably below the general sea-level. This sea "has no tides; its waters are slightly salt; it is shallow, stormy, and of difficult navigation, and has but few indifferent ports." It is, politically, controlled by Russia, and is regularly navigated by the war vessels of that power.

2. The Persian Gulf communicates with the Indian Ocean by the Strait of Ormuz and the Gulf of Oman. Its navigation is somewhat difficult, especially along its western shores, owing to numerous reefs and islands. Still it is constantly navigated by vessels to and from Bombay and other Indian ports, and should the Euphrates-valley route to India be opened it will be much more frequented. The Strait of Ormuz derives its name from the small island of Ormuz, which lies near the coast of Persia.

ISLANDS.—The principal are Ormuz, Kishm, and Karak, in the Persian Gulf.

1. Ormuz is naturally a barren rock, but in the sixteenth and early part of the following century, when in the possession of the Portuguese, it was the chief emporium of the commerce of the East.²

2. Kishm, at the entrance of the Persian Gulf, an island of much larger size, lies to the west of Ormuz.

3. Karak is a fertile island near the head of the Persian Gulf.

SURFACE.—The interior of Persia is a plateau, elevated from three to four thousand feet above the sea, and bordered on three sides—the north, west, and south—by mountain chains. These mountains divide the elevated interior from the low country which lies along the Caspian Sea, the Persian Gulf, and the banks of the Tigris.

In the north of Persia, the Elburz range skirts the southern shores of the Caspian Sea, and attaining in the volcanic Mount Demavend an elevation of 18,470 feet. The Elburz range is continued into the lofty mountain groups in the north-western province, Azerbijan,* of which the Savalan Dagh reaches a height of 14,000 feet. Azerbijan is the most rugged portion of Persia; it forms neight of 12,000 reet. Azerolan is the most ragged portion of Persia it forms a succession of tablelands, mountain peaks, and intervening valleys, and has a cooler temperature than other parts of the country. Near the western border lies the *Pusht-i-Kuh*, separating the basins of the Kerkha and the Tigris. There are also several ranges which extend parallel to, and at various distances from the eastern shores of the Persian Gulf, of which the as yet unexplored *Kuh Dinar*, in Fars⁴ is estimated to attain an elevation of about 18,000 feat. Further inlead wine the narollel chain of the *kuh Pard Maratim* feet. Further inland runs the parallel chain of the Kuh Rud Mountains,

2. "High on a throne of royal state which Outshone the wealth of Ormus or of Ind." .-Paradise Lost, b. ii.

Aserbijan, "country of fire"; formerly occupied by the fire-worshippers. Some of their descendants still exist in this province.
 The province of Fars was anciently called Persis, hence Persia. The Persians call their country, Iran; the Arabs, Fars or Farsistan.

^{1.} It was called a "sea" by the ancients, who thought it communicated with the Northern Ocean, which was most probably the fact at a comparatively recent geological period, but no such connection has existed within historical times. The immense supply of water poured into the Caspian by the Volga, Ural, Kura, and other large rivers, seems to be at present equal to the amount eraporated, but at a former period this could not have been the case, or its level would not be below that of the ocean.

which culminate in the Kuh Darbish,¹ 11,700 feet, in the north, and Kuh-*i*-Hazar, 14,450 feet, in the south. The south coast is also skirted by several parallel but unimportant ranges, which are prolonged eastward into Baluchistan.

DESERTS.—Part of the interior plateau is a region called the *Great Salt Desert*. This is an arid tract, the soil of which is largely impregnated with particles of salt. South-east of the Great Desert is a smaller arid and marshy tract called the *Desert of Kerman*.

The total area of absolute desert is probably upwards of 150,000 square miles, or more than two and a half times the size of England and Wales.

BIVERS.—Persia, although its surface is broken by lofty mountain ranges, some of them crowned by glaciers, and although it rains and snows almost incessantly during the long winter, has but few large rivers, and only one of these—the **Karun River**—is navigable for sea-going vessels.

The Aras forms part of its north-western frontier; the Shat el Arab immediately above its entrance into the Persian Gulf (for the last 30 miles of its course), constitutes the line of division between Persia and Asiatic Turkey.

The other rivers of Persia are the Kerkha (380 miles long), the Karun (260 miles), and the Safed Rud² (800 miles). The two former join the Shat el Arab; the Safed-rud flows into the Caspian Sea. The smaller rivers of Persia, flowing towards the interior, are either absorbed in its arid plains or are received into saltwater lakes. The Shat el Arab is formed by the junction at Kurnah of the Euphrates and the Tigris.

LAKES.—The largest lake is Urumiah (1,735 square miles in extent), in the north-western province. It lies at an elevation of 4,000 feet above the sea, and its waters are intensely salt. Lake Bakhlegan or Niris, in the more southern interior, about 50 miles south-east of Shiraz, is also salt. West of the latter is the small Lake Mahluja, near Shiraz. The Lake of Hamun is on the eastern border.³

CLIMATE.—The climate of Persia exhibits great extremes. The interior plateaux are alternately parched by the fiercest heat of summer and swept by the cold winds of the opposite season. The lower plains, along the Caspian Sea and the Persian Gulf, are intensely hot.

The shores of the Persian Gulf, indeed, are among the hottest regions in the world, and the power of the sun's rays, reflected from the arid surface of rock and sand, is, during some months of each year, scarcely endurable. The mountain valleys, lying among the successive terraces by which the interior is reached from the coast, or from the plains of the Tigris, possess a delightful and equable climate, and are the most fertile portions of Persia.

PRODUCTIONS.—In these elevated valleys, watered by numerous running streams, such fruits as the vine, fig, water-melon, and peach abound; a rich vegetation clothes the sides of the hills, and a carpet of wildflowers (many of them such as constitute the choicest ornaments of our gardens, as the narcissus, iris, and asphodel) covers the ground. The interior plains are arid and comparatively unproductive, yielding only saline plants and grasses. The olive flourishes in Northern Persia. Among the minerals are the turquoise, found near Nishapur, and the fine white marble of Maragha.

1. About 35 miles north-west of Ispahan.	freshwater swamp, 160 miles in length, into
2. Or Kisil Usen, "golden stream."	which the Helmand and other streams, which
8. The Lake of Hamun or Seistan, on the borders of Persia, is in reality a vast	drain southern Afghanistan, discharge their waters.

PERSIA.

INHABITANTS.—Persia has about 9 million inhabitants.¹ only one-fourth of whom are of pure Persian race, dwelling mostly in the towns. The rest are Turks, Kurds, Arabs, Baluchis, and various other wandering tribes.

A people called *Hiyats*, whose habits are pastoral, form about a fourth of the population of Persia. They dwell principally in tents, finding summer pastures for their flocks upon the mountain sides, and returning to the lower plains during the season of winter. Camels, horses, and sheep constitute their wealth.

Education.-In no other country in Asia, except China, is education so generally diffused. The public schools and colleges are supported by the State, and give advanced instruction in Oriental literature.

Religion .- The people are mostly Mohammedans² in religion, but almost all are followers of the Shiite sect, on which account deep and mutual antipathy prevails between themselves and the Turks.

INDUSTRIES.—Although a large portion of the country is an absolute desert, yet most of the people are engaged in agricultural and pastoral pursuits, and there are important manufactures of silks, carpets, shawls, and arms.

Rice, barley, wheat, and various fruits are largely grown, and the olive, mulberry, vine, and cotton plants are extensively cultivated. Carpets, shawls, embroidered silks, subres, and frearms, cotton and woollen fabrics, are also manufactured on a scale of some magnitude in the larger towns.

Commerce.—The commerce, carried on chiefly by caravans, is considerable, native produce and manufactures being exchanged for Indian and European goods. The trade by the Caspian is mainly in the hands of the Russians; that by the Persian Gulf and the Karun River, mainly with British India, is carried on by British merchants.

The imports from British India alone exceed 11 million sterling. The direct trade with Great Britain only amounts to about half a million sterling. The internal trade centres at TABRIZ,³ where the productions of Northern India and Central Asia are exchanged for British and continental manufactures, brought by caravan from the Black Sea ports and from Russia through Caucasia.

Internal Communication.-There are only two short railways, and only two passable carriage roads in the whole country. The telegraph and postal services are conducted partly by Europeans.

Ports .- The chief ports are Bushir, Lingah, and Bandar Abbas, on the Persian Gulf; Mohammerah, on the Karun River; and Enzeli, Mashad-I-Sar, and Bandar-I-Gez, on the Caspian. Lingah is the principal port on the Persian Gulf. TABRIZ, in the north-western province, and SHIRAZ, 110 miles inland from Bushir (one of the Persian Gulf Ports), are important entrepôts.

GOVERNMENT.—The government of Persia is a despotic monarchy, the sovereign being entitled the Shah,⁴ but his power is absolute only in so far as it is not contrary to the precepts of the Koran.

The Shah is assisted in the actual work of government by a number of Ministers, each of whom is the head of a particular department, as in Europe.

The average annual Revenue, about one-fourth of which is collected in kind (wheat, barley, rice, silk, &c.), is over 2 millions sterling, and the Expenditure about the same. There is no Public Debt.

^{1.} According to an estimate made in 1831, the population numbers 7,455,600-ic., inhabitants of cities, 1963,900; swaldering tribes, 1969,800; inhabitants of village and country districts, 3,780,000. 2. The non-Mohammedan inhabitants do not exceed 95,000, and include about 43,000 Arme-nians, 23,000 Nestorian Christians, 20,000 Jews,

and about 9,000 Guebres or Parsis, who are the descendants of the ancient fire-worshippers. 3. The principal articles of import into Tabriz are oction goods from Great Britain. The chief article exported is raw silk. 4. The Shah is officially styled "Shah-in-Shah," or King of Kings.

Army.-The regular army numbers about 30,000 men, but there are also about 70,000 men in the militia. Non-Mohammedans are exempt from military service.

DIVISIONS.—Persia is divided into a number of provinces, which are ruled by Governors-General appointed by, and directly responsible to, the Shah.

The Persian Provinces of Astrabad, Mazanderan, and Ghilan, lie along the The Fersian Provinces of Astrabad, Maximideran, and Ghilan, he along the Caspian Sea; the mountainous province of Azerbijan occupies the entire north-western part of the country. Kurdistan, Luristan, and Khuzistan, in the west, intervene between the great central province of Irak-Ajemi and the Turkish frontier. Khuzistan and the southern provinces of Farsistan and Kerman border on the Persian Gulf. The province of Khorassan, in the north-east, marches with Trans-Caspia and Afghanistan; Kuhistan or Persian Balu-chistan, in the south-east, borders on the Gulf of Oman.

Towns.—Only one town in Persia—Teheran—has over 200,000 inhabitants; another town, Tabris, has 180,000 inhabitants. Three towns—Ispahan, Ma-shad, and Barfrush have a population of between 50,000 and 60,000, and eight other towns contain over 25,000 people.

TEHEBAN, in the northern part of the country, 70 miles south of the Caspian, is the modern capital of Persia,1 and now contains nearly a quarter of a million of inhabitants. Ispahan has declined from the splendour which it once possessed. Hamadan represents the Achmetha of the Bible (Ezra vi., 2). These three towns are in the province of Irak-Ajemi.

The important commercial emporium of **Tabriz**, the chief city of Azerbijan, lies not far distant from the shores of the salt lake of Urumiah. The province of Azerbijan was the original seat of the ancient fire-worshippers of Persia, and it still exhibits numerous remains of the early fire-temples. The towns of Resht, Barfrush, and Astrabad, in the hot and low plains that border on the Caspian, command the chief commerce of that sea through their ports-Enzeli, the port of Resht, Mashad 1-Sar, the port of Barfrush, and Bandar 1-Gez, the port of Astrabad. The hely city of Mashad, in the north-east of Khorassan near the Russian and Afghan frontiers, is an important commercial centre and a great resort of Mohammedan pilgrims.

Shiraz is the chief city of Farsistan, the most fertile province of Persia, and the original seat of the Persian monarchy. Shiraz enjoys a delightful climate, and is the centre of considerable trade.³ Bushir, on the Persian Gulf, and Lingah and Bandar Abbas or Gombrun, near the entrance of the Gulf, on its northern shore, are the chief seats of the foreign commerce of Persia.

Shuster and Dizful, the chief cities of Khuzistan, the south-western province of Persia, are of some commercial importance. Shuster stands on the Karun River, Dizful on a tributary of that stream.³ The rising port of **Ahwas** is on the Karun River about half-way between Shuster and Mohammerah. Mohammerah, at the junction of the Karun with the Shat el Arab, has been growing in commercial importance since the Karun River was opened to foreign navigation. The Bombay Gazette reports that what was only recently an inconsiderable town, has now become a thriving and populous port, at which the steamers of the British India Company and the Persian Gulf Steam Navigation Company make regular calls. Grain is now shipped from the port direct for Europe, and the Euphrates and Tigris Steam Navigation Companies run their steamers up the river to Ahwaz, in conjunction with the boats under the Persian flag running from that town to Shuster.

1. Teheran became the capital of Persia in 1794. 2. Shiras was nearly destroyed by an earth-guake in April, 1853. Not far distant from Shiras are the remains of the ancient *Persepolis*, the capital of the Persian Monarchy in the time of Alexander the Great. These remains now bear the name of *Istakr*. 3. A few miles to the south-west of Dizful is

the mound of Sus, which marks the site of the ancient city of Susa, the Shushan of Scripture (Dan, viii, 2). Huge mounds and other remains of the works of man in a former age, situated in the midst of tracts now desolate, are found in various parts of Khuzistan, and reveal the same picture of decay which characterises almost every part of Western Asia.

QUESTIONS ON PERSIA.

1. How is Persia bounded ? 2. Where is the island of Ormuz, and for what is it noteworthy? 3. What kind of formation does Persia exhibit

as to its physical geography? 4. Name some of the mountains that are within Persia. Which of its provinces is the most

mountainous?

mountainous? 5. Where is the Great Salb Desert? 6. What rivers belong to Permin? 7. What ive large lakes does Persia include? 8. What kind of elimate has Persia? 9. What fruits and flowers belong to the watered districts of Persia? 10. Among the inhabitants of Persia are a people called *Rights*, what are their habita? 11. What are the chief industries? Name the chief perts.

chief ports.

Under what form of government is Persia?
 How is the sovereign styled?
 Into how many provinces is Persia divided?
 What eity is the capital?

Haradan, Tabriz, Barfrush, and Mashad?
 By what is the province of Azerbijan dis-

By what is the province are Shirax and Bushir?
 Is, In what province are Shirax and Bushir?
 For what is Bushir noteworthy?
 Of what ancient city are the remains found not far distant from Shiraz? For what was this in the distance and shiraz?

not far distant from Shiraz? For what was this city distinguished? 18. What three places are within the province of Khuzistan? Which of them stands at the junction of the Karun river with the Euphrates? 18. Of what ancient city are the remains found near Disful?

BALUCHISTAN.

BALUCHISTAN¹ is the general name given to the imperfectlyexplored territory bordering on the Indian Ocean, and lying between Afghanistan on the north, Persia on the west, and British India on the east.

EXTENT.-The area of Baluchistan is estimated at about 130,000 square miles. A straight line, from the port of Gwadar on the south to Quetta on the north, measures about 450 miles.

COASTS.—The coast-line is about 700 miles in length, and contains a few inlets which form indifferent harbours. The overland telegraph to India runs along the coast from Maksa to Karachi.

NATURAL FEATURES.—The chief physical characteristics of Baluchistan are (1) the low coast desert of Makran, backed by mountain ranges of moderate elevation, beyond which lies (2) the interior plateau, buttressed on the east by the Hala Mountains, but sloping on the north to (3) the sandy and stony plain which extends to the Helmand valley in the south of Afghanistan.

1. Mountains.—An irregular chain of mountains extends from east to west at a distance of between 50 and 100 miles from the coast, terminating in a triple chain which occupies Persian Baluchistan. To the east, the central plateau is bounded by the Hala Mountains and other ranges, which extend north from Cape Monze, near Karachi, to the Bolan Pass.

2. Rivers.-The only permanent river is the Dasht, in southern Baluchistan. The Mashkid, in the interior, loses itself in the desert. The north-eastern districts are watered by various streams which flow into the Indus.

3. Climate.-The climate exhibits extremes of heat and cold; the plains, and in summer even the highlands, being intensely hot; while in winter the

^{1.} Baluchistan, so called from the Baluchi | country, but the Brahuis are now the dominant tribe, who occupy the larger portion of the | race.

cold is severe, snow lying on the ground for several months. In summer, the coast district of Makran is one of the hottest parts of the globe.

4. Productions.—Several of the most useful minerals and metals are known to exist, but are not much worked. Good coal is obtained at Khost, on the Sind-Pishin Railway. The vegetation resembles that of Persia, and in the low plains is of a decidedly tropical character. Leopards, wolves, hyenas, antelopes, and other wild animals are numerous, but the tiger and the Asiatic lion are found only along the eastern frontier.

INHABITANTS.—The total population of British and Independent Baluchistan numbers perhaps about half a million.

The people belong to two entirely different races—the *Baluchis* proper, who are of Aryan origin, in the western part of the country; and the *Brahuis* of Mongolian descent, in the eastern districts. The Baluchis proper speak a dialect closely allied to Persian; the language of the Brahuis is said to be of Sanskrit origin. Both the Baluchis and the Brahuis are Mohammedans; the former belong to the orthodox Sunnite sect, the latter to the sect of Omar.

Some agriculture is carried on in the immediate neighbourhood of the various towns, but the bulk of the people are nomads, depending entirely on their ficeks and herds. Rice is extensively grown only in Gandava in the north-east. There are no manufactures of any importance. The commerce is in the hands of Hindus, and large numbers of horses, drugs, &c., are sent to India. The trade in Baluchistan Proper is carried on by camel-caravans, there being no roads or navigable rivers. In British Baluchistan, the Sind-Pishin Railway is largely used for the conveyance of merchandise as well as military stores.

GOVERNMENT: The Baluchi tribes are nominally subject to the Khan of Kalat, who rules under the direction of the Agent to the Governor-General of India. British Baluchistan, Quetta, and the Bolan Pass are under British administration.

According to the "Statesman's Year Book," Baluchistan includes (1) Independent Baluchistan, ruled by a number of chiefs under the suzerainty of the Khan of Kalat; (2) Quetta and the Bolan, administered on the Khan's behalf by British officers; (8) British Baluchistan, which includes the assigned districts of Pishin, Sibi, &c., under direct British rule; and (4) certain Afghan and Baluchi tribes on the Indian frontier. Quetta and the Bolan, with British Baluchistan, were placed under a *Chief Commissioner* in 1887.

TOWNS.—There are no towns of any importance, the chief towns of most of the provinces being mere villages, containing a few hundred inhabitants.

KALAT, the nominal capital of Baluchistan, is the summer residence of the Khan, who removes to **Gandava**, in the Indus valley, in the winter. Kalat lies 8,000 feet above the sea, and was stormed by the British in 1839 and 1841. **Gwadar** and **Sonmiani** are small ports on the coast of Baluchistan Proper. About 70 miles north of Kalat is the famous *Bolan Pass*, which is long (51 miles), narrow, and difficult, and although it passes "over a lofty range by a continuous succession of ravines and gorges," it formed, even before the construction of the railway, one of the main channels of communication between India and Afghanistan. In 1877, the town of **Quetta**, to the north-west of it, was occupied by the British, and is virtually the capital of **BRITISH BALU-OHISTAN**, which practically includes the Pishin Valley as well as the adjoining assigned districts. **Dadur** and Sibi lie near the south-eastern entrance of the Bolan Pass. Dadur is one of the hottest places in the world. Sibi is a station on the Sind-Pishin Railway, which is already open beyond Quetta, and is now being pushed forward to Kandahar.

AFGHANISTAN.

AFGHANISTAN.

AFGHANISTAN is the name given to a mountainous country on the north-western frontier of India. Lying between the Russian dominions and India, this country is, politically, of great importance, hence the recent strenuous efforts of the British Government to make its power felt and respected by the turbulent and warlike inhabitants of this otherwise unimportant region.

BOUNDARIES.—Afghanistan is bounded on the north by Bokhara and the Trans-Caspian Territory, on the east by British India, on the south by British Baluchistan, and on the west by Persia.

The boundaries of Afghanistan, as laid down by the Anglo-Russian Delimitation Commission in 1886, extend north beyond the Hindu-Kush to the Amu-Daria or Oxus, and thence to Zulfikar, on the Har-i-Rud River, and nominally include the mountain lands between the Pamir Plateau and Kashmir. The southern boundary lies about the parallel of 30° N., and the western frontier runs from the Har-i-Rud River to Kuh Malik-i-Siah, a conspicuous peak southeast of the River Helmand. The area within these limits is estimated at 280,000 square miles, or nearly five times that of England and Wales.

NATURAL FEATURES.—Lord Lawrence pithily describes Afghanistan as a "country of mountain ranges, narrow defiles, and valleys limited in extent." In fact, more than four-fifths of its surface consist of rugged mountains, with intervening valleys, some of which are well watered by numerous perennial streams.

The lofty range of the Hindu-Kush extends along the northern border from the Pamir Plateau, and is prolonged west as the Koh-i-Baba and the Safed-Koh¹ or *Paropamisan Mountains* (north of the Har-i-Rud River), which merge into the Khorassan highlands, and are thus linked with the Elburz Mountains to the south of the Caspian Sea. The Sulaiman Mountains, on the east, divide Afghanistan from the low plains that border the Indus; their highest summit, called *Takht-i-Sulaiman*,³ is 12,000 feet in height. Besides these there are other lofty ranges, such as the Siah Koh, south of the Har-i-Rud River, and the **Safed-Koh**, 12,000 feet high, south of the Kabul River.

The mountain ranges of Afghanistan are traversed by numerous passes, of which the most important, from a military and commercial point of view, are the Khyber Pass (30 miles in length), leading from Peshawar towards Jellalbad, and thence by the Khurd Kabul Pass to Kabul; the Kuram Pass, up the valley of the Kuram River, and then by the Peiwar Pass (7,500 feet) and Shutargardan Pass (11,000 feet) to the road between Kabul and Ghazni; the Gomul Pass, from the Indus valley across the Sulaiman Mountains to Ghazni; and still further south, within the limits of British Baluchistan, the Bolan Pass (50 miles) leading to Quetta, and thence by the Pishin Valley and the Kojak Pass to Kandahar.

The chief rivers of Afghanistan are the **Kabul**, which, with its tributaries, drains the north-eastern part of the country, and, after a course of 300 miles, joins the Indus at Attock; the **Heimand**, with its tributaries, which drains Central Afghanistan, and, after a course of 700 miles, discharges its waters into the lake, or rather swamp, of Hamun in Seistan, into which the **Harud** and the **Farah** also empty themselves. The **Murghab** and the **Har-i-Rud** both flow north and finally disappear in the Turkoman Desert.

I.

2. i.e., the throne of Solomon.

^{1.} i.e., the white mountain.

The Dehas River, which flows north from Koh-i-Baba, is also lost in the sands near Balkh, but the Kundus River, which flows from the same mountains, joins the Amu Daria.

The only considerable lakes are the **Lake of Hamun** in Seistan, on the southwest frontier, which is in fact a mere swamp, being scarcely anywhere more than three feet deep, and the intensely salt **Lake Abistada**, about 60 miles south-west of Ghazni, and into which the Ghazni River flows.

CLIMATE.—The climate is distinguished by intense extremes of heat and cold; the summer heat in some of the deeper valleys being almost intolerable, while the winters, especially in the highlands, are intensely severe.

At Farah, in western Afghanistan, it is said that the mid-day heat renders eggs hard and makes balls of lead malleable. Yet the winter of Kabul is intensely severe, and the streams are frozen sufficiently hard to bear loaded camels. In spite of the disadvantages of an extreme climate, the country is on the whole healthy, and its inhabitants are perhaps the strongest and most active race in central Asia.

PRODUCTIONS.—The natural productions are like those of Persia, and the ground yields abundance of fruits and grain wherever water is sufficiently plentiful.

Various metals and minerals are also found, but not much worked. Among the domestic animals are the camel, the broad-tailed sheep, and an excellent breed of horses, great numbers of which are exported to Iudia. Among the wild animals are the lion (rare), leopard (common), wolves, hyenas, bears, wild sheep, and antelopes.

INHABITANTS.—The population is estimated at about 5 millions, consisting of over 400 different tribes, some of which are almost independent of the Amir.

The Ghilzais and Duranis are the most powerful of the Afghan Tribes. Of the rest, the most important are the Tajiks, of Arab or Persian descent, in the west; and the Kahkars in the south-east. The Cafars or Kafirs, Mohmuds, Afridis, Waziris, and other tribes occupy the mountainous regions which enclose the Punjab on the north and west.

The Afghans proper evidently belong to the Aryan race, but the *Hazaras*, in the north-west, are of Mongolian origin. The Afghans generally are a bold and hardy race of mountaineers, extremely jealous of their liberty, many of the tribes owning no sovereignty but that of their own chiefs. They are warlike and hospitable, but treacherous and faithless.

The Afghans proper (who call themselves Beni Israel, or Sons of Israel, and claim descent from Saul) are Mohammedans, and belong to the orthodox or Sunnite sect, but the Hazaras and other tribes belong to the Shiite sect.

INDUSTRIES.—The Afghans are mostly devoted to pastoral pursuits. There is little *manufacturing* industry, but a considerable amount of trade passes through Afghanistan, owing to its intermediate position between India and the countries of Western Asia.

The only good roads in the country are those made by the British, from Peshawar to Kabul, and up the Bolan Pass to Kandahar, and goods are mostly conveyed by camels and other beasts of burden.

GOVERNMENT.—Afghanistan has almost always been in an unsettled state, and the various tribes are more or less independent. The **Amir of Kabul**, the chief of the powerful Durani tribe, is, however, acknowledged as sovereign, and is recognised by the British Government as ruler of Afghanistan.

Afghanistan was first invaded by British troops in 1838, but three years later the English army was destroyed and the country abandoned. It was again invaded in 1878, and Kabul and Kandahar were occupied for a time. As a result of this war, British India secured an extension of territory to the north-west, and a "scientific frontier" from the head of the Khyber Pass, by the Shutargardan Pass at the Afghan end of the Kurum valley, to the Koja Amran Pass north of Quetta, thus giving to India the command of the "north-west gates," by which alone any hostile advance can be made. The Amir also consented to receive an English Resident, but a fanatical outbreak at Kabul, resulting in the murder of Sir Louis Cavagnari and his escort, led to another Afghan war, at the end of which the British troops were withdrawn from the country.

DIVISIONS.—The principal divisions of Afghanistan Proper are Kabul in the east, Kandahar in the south, Herat in the north-west, Seistan in the south-west, and Daman in the south-east.

Other large territories to the north-east are also included within Afghanistan, namely, Afghan Turkestan, between the Hindu-Kush Mountains and the river Amu, and Kafiristan, between the Hindu-Kush and the Indian frontier.

TOWNS.—The chief towns are **Kabul** (the capital), **Kandahar**, and **Herat**. These three towns form, as it were, the three angles of a triangle—Herat being the apex, and Kabul-Kandahar the base—on the occupation of which depends the command of the country.

KABUL,¹ in the north-east, at an elevation of 6,400 feet, is defended by the Bala Hissar. Being on the trade-route from Central Asia to the Punjab, it has a large transit trade. **Kandahar**, the "Key of India," is the largest town in Southern Afghanistan, and is a place of some commercial importance, being on the main route between India and Persia. In the north-west, almost at the point where the Afghan, Russian, and Persian boundaries converge, is Herat, the "Gate of India," and the focus of several commercial routes between India, Persia, and Russian Central Asia. **Ghazni was**, in the 10th century, the capital of an extensive and powerful empire, but is now a mere fortress, built on a rock 300 feet above the adjoining plain. It was stormed and taken by the British in 1839 and 1842, and was again occupied during the last Afghan war. Jellalabad lies on the right bank of the Kabul River, about midway between Pesha-

^{1.} Here, in 1842, the British Envoys, Sir W. | September, 1879, Sir L. Cavagnari, were treach-MacNaghten and Sir Alexander Burnes, and in | erously murdered.

war and Kabul. Between Jellalabad and Kabul are the passes in which the British forces were annihilated during the winter of 1841-42.¹

AFGHAN TURKESTAN includes a number of small States, lying between the Hindu-Kush and the Oxus. These are Wakhan, Badakshan, Kundus, Khulm, and Balkh, with four other States.

Wakhan is the most easterly of these States, and includes the valley of the Pania or Upper Oxus. The chief town is Kila Pania.

Badakshan, which includes the fertile valley of the Kokcha, one of the upper affluents of the Oxus, is mountainous, but the valleys and lower grounds are cultivated to a considerable extent. The principal towns are Faizabad and Zebak. West of Badakshan lies

Kundus, which is bounded on the north by the River Oxus, and on the south by the Hindu-Kush Mountains. The valley of the Kunduz River (an affluent of the Oxus) is on the whole fertile, but unhealthy. The capital is the mud village of Kunduz. On the route between Kunduz and Faizabad is the former capital. Talikhan.

Khulm lies between Kunduz and Balkh. Its chief river and capital are also called Khulm. The higher grounds are rocky and arid, but the river valley is exceedingly fertile.

Balkh, the ancient Bactria, embraces the fertile and populous basin of the Dehas or Balkh River, the waters of which are drawn off into eighteen canals, and are entirely exhausted in irrigation. The capital, Balkh, now a mere village, is noted as being the birthplace of Zoroaster, and was in ancient times a magnificent city.

Besides the above, four other small khanates-Shiberghan, Andkhui, Mai-mana, and Siripul-formerly independent, are included within the limits of Afghanistan. They lie between the province of Herat and Russian Turkestan. The total population, consisting mainly of Usbegs, is probably under 250,000.

QUESTIONS ON BALUCHISTAN AND AFGHANISTAN.

1. How is Baluchistan bounded, and what is its area? Name the chief natural features of Balu-

chistan.

Alme the entrief naturni features of failte-chistan.
 What mountain ranges lie between Balu-chistan and British India?
 Describe briefly the climate and produc-tion of the state of the second state of the second and the state of the second state of the second of the second state of the second state of the second result of the second state of the second state.
 What form of religion do they profess?
 Name the chief divisions of Baluchistan.
 What form of religion do they profess?
 Name the chief divisions of Baluchistan.
 What town is the nominal capital? Where are the following towns: --Quetta, Gundava, Gwadar, Sonmiani, Dadur, Shi?
 What town is belan Pass? What town is held by the British near its northern entrance?
 Where is Afghanistan, and what are its boundaries?

11. Name the principal mountain ranges and

passes. 12 What rivers belong to Afghanistan? Point them out on the map and trace their courses. 13 Name the two chief lakes. 14 What kind of dimute has Afghanistan? 15 Enumerate the principal natural produc-

tions. 16. The inhabitants of Afghanistan belong to many different tribes, which of these are the most important? 17. What form of religion do the Afghans pro-fees?

fees 7
18. How are they generally employed?
19. What chief is acknowledged as ruler of Afghanistan?
20. What are the principal divisions?
21. State what you know of Kabul, Kandahar, Herst, Ghasmi, and Jelialabad?
22. Describe briefly the States comprised within Afghan Turkestan.

1. In this disastrous retreat only one man reached Jellalabad, which was held by Sir Robert Sale with a small force, until relieved by

General Pollock, who ordered the fortifications to be destroyed.

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THE INDIAN EMPIRE.

The INDIAN EMPIRE comprises the central and by far the most important of the three great peninsulas of Southern Asia, together with large territories on the eastern side of the Bay of Bengal.

The total area of these vast dominions, most of which are under direct British rule, and the rest subject to British control, is upwards of 1,800,000 square miles, or more than 30 times as large as England and Wales, while the *population*, according to the census of 1891, is 286,000,000 (or more than 9 times the population of England and Wales).

INDIA.

INDIA PROPER or HINDUSTAN extends from the Himalaya Mountains to Cape Comorin, and from the Sulaiman Mountains to the head of the Bay of Bengal.

BOUNDARIES.—The Himalaya Mountains bound India on the north; Burma and the Bay of Bengal on the east; Afghanistan, Baluchistan, and the Indian Ocean on the west. To the south, it terminates in Cape Comorin, a conspicuous headland which fronts the waters of the Indian Ocean.

In shape, India Proper is triangular, the vast range of the Himalayas forming the base, the Malabar and Coromandel coasts the sides, and Cape Comorin the apex. It is worthy of notice that the boundaries of India are, for the most part, formed by strongly-marked natural features. Thus the Hala and the Sulsiman Mountains on the north-west, the Himalayas on the north, and the Naga, Khasia, and Tipperah Hills on the east, form an almost continuous "wall," enclosing the continental portion of India. The strictly peninsular portion south of the Tropic of Cancer is bounded on both sides by the sea. The *political* importance of a naturally strong frontier, instead of merely artificial boundaries, is evidently very great, and especially when an immense territory like India is held by a distant foreign power.

EXTENT.—India Proper embraces an area of over 14 millions square miles, a magnitude 14 times greater than that of the British Islands, and which exceeds by more than 20 times the area of England and Wales.

If we include Kashmir, with an area estimated at 80,900 square miles, Manipur at 8,000, Upper Burma at 90,000, and the British Shan States at 90,000 square miles, the total area of British India may be taken at 1,650,000 square niles, or nearly one-half the area of Europe.

COASTS.—The coasts of India are, on the whole, regular and unbroken, deficient in good harbours, and so exposed and surf-beaten as to be in many parts extremely dangerous to approach. The length of the coast-line is about 3,600 miles, equivalent to one mile of coast to every 416 square miles of area. Various portions of the Indian coasts are distinguished by special names, such as—

1. The Orissa Coast, between the mouths of the Hugli and the Godaveri.

2. The Golconda Coast, between the Godaveri and the Kistna.

3. The Coromandel Coast, between the Kistna and Cape Comorin.

4. The Malabar Coast, between Cape Comorin and Goa.

The principal features along the coast of India are :---

1. Capes.-Cape Monze (near Karachi) and Diu Head (south of Guzerat) on the west, Cape Comorin on the south, and Calimere Point on the west.

2. Inlets.—The Gulf of Cutch or Kach, leading into the Runn of Cutch (a vast salt marsh, flooded only during the rainy season), and the Gulf of Cambay, on the *west*, and, on the *south*, the Gulf of Manaar (divided from Palk Strait by the remarkable ridge of sandstone known as Adam's Bridge), between Ceylon and the mainland.

ISLANDS.—The principal islands are Ceylon, the Laccadives and Maldives, the Andaman and Nicobar Islands, and the Bombay group.

1. The large island of **Geylon**, lying to the south of India, is a British Grown Colony, entirely independent of the Indian Government. Ceylon is 25,364 square miles in area, or about three-fourths the size of Ireland. The interior of the island is a high mountain region, the loftiest summits of which exceed 7,000 feet; a broad belt of lowland extends around the coast. Numerous rivers water its plains and valleys, and it possesses a fine climate, with an abundance of rich natural produce. Its extensive forests (through which numerous herds of elephants yet roam) are composed of trees which yield timber of the highest value, as the teak, ebony, rosewood, satin-wood, and others. But the most characteristic products of the island are tea, coffee, rice, cinchona, cinnamon, and tobacco.¹

Ceylon has upwards of 3 millions of inhabitants. These are called Singhalese; they differ in some respects from the people of the Indian mainland, and profess Buddhism. The political and commercial capital of the colony is *Colombo* (120), on the western coast. *Trincomali*, a flourishing seaport with an excellent harbour, is on the north-east side of the island. *Kandi*, formerly the native capital, is in the interior.

2. The groups of the Laccadive and Maldive Islands lie in the Indian Ocean, to the south-west of India. The former are surrounded by coral reefs, and the latter are wholly composed of coral—scarcely rising above the level of the surrounding waters. The cocoa-nut is the chief product in either group.

3. In the Andaman Islands, in the eastern part of the Bay of Bengal, the chief settlement is Port Blair, on Great Andaman Island.

4. The Nicobar Islands, to the south-east of the Andaman Islands, consist of two large islands, Great and Little Nicobar, and several smaller ones.

5. Of the Bombay Group the principal islands are Bombay, Salsette, Colaba, and Elephanta, the latter being especially famous for the temples and idols excavated in the solid rock. The island of Bombay, near the southern extremity of which lies the town of Bombay, is connected with Salsette by an artificial causeway.

NATURAL FEATURES.—The more noticeable of the great natural features of India are on the north, the vast range of the Himalayas, the loftiest mountains in the world, the exterior ranges of which rise abruptly from the Great Plain of Hindustan, watered by the Indus and Ganges. The peninsular portion of India to the south of this plain forms a series of tablelands, crossed transversely by several considerable chains, and buttressed on the east and west by the Ghats, between which and the sea is a narrow plain. The highlands of central and southern India are everywhere seamed by irregular valleys drained by numerous rivers.

United Kingdom-annual value over 4 millions stering-consists chiefly in the export of isa, coffe, and cimehons, and in the import of cottom goods, coal, and machinery.

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India thus embraces two great divisions: the north, which is an extensive lowland plain; and the centre and south, which form a plateau, bordered by mountains of moderate altitude. The plain of northern India is distinguished as *Hindustan*; the centre and south constitute a region known as the *Deccan*.

1. Mountains.— The chief mountain chains of India are the Himalayas, the Western and Eastern Ghats, the Aravalli Hills, the Vindhya and the Satpura Mountains, and the Nilgiri Hills. The Himalayas are by far the most important, and they include the highest elevations on the surface of the globe.

(1.) The Himalaya Mountains extend for 1,500 miles in a well-defined line along the northern border of India, dividing that country from the tableland of Tibet. Like other great mountain ranges, the Himalayas consist of several parallel ranges. The outer range, bordering on the great plain of India, rises abruptly to a height of 3,000 or 4,000 feet. The inner chains gradually increase in elevation and culminate in the main ridge containing the lofty summits of *Gaurisankar or Mount Everest*, 29,002 feet above the sea(the highest mountain in the world); *Dhwalagiri*, 28,078 feet; and *Kanchinjanga*, 28,177 feet. All the higher parts of the Himalayas are covered with perpetual snow. The *passes* over the Himalayas are lofty and extremely difficult. The best known are the *Karakoram Pass* (18,650 feet), and the *Mustagh*, leading into Eastern Turkestan, and the *Seylub Pass* into Tibet. All the loftier valleys are filled with vast glaciers, from which the great rivers of India derive a never-failing supply.

(2.) The Western Ghats extend along the Malabar Coast of India, lying close to the shores of the Indian Ocean. Their highest summits do not exceed 8,000 feet. A succession of detached portions of high ground which extend along the eastern side of the peninsula are called the **Eastern Ghats**. These have an average height of 1,500 feet.

(3.) The **Aravalli Hills** lie along the western border of the tableland of Malwa, and separate the basins of the Ganges and the lower Indus. The average elevation is inconsiderable, *Mount Abu* rises to a height of 5,000 feet above the sea. Further south is *Girna*, 3,000 feet high.

(4.) The Vindhya Mountains lie in the direction of east and west, along the north side of the peninsular portion of India. Their height is moderate, seldom exceeding 3,000 feet.

(5.) The **Satpura Mountains** run almost parallel to the Vindhya range for 200 miles, between the Narbada and the Tapti. These mountains are prolonged eastward, almost to the banks of the Ganges, as the *Rajmahal Hills*, one peak of which, *Mount Parisnath*, reaches a height of 4,530 feet. Still further east, beyond the Brahmaputra, are the minor *Garrow* and *Khasia Hills*. Between these and the coast are the *Tipperah Hills*.

(6.) The Nilgiri Hills form a connecting link between the Eastern and the Western Ghats, and rise abruptly from the remarkable valley or "gap" of Coimbatore, which extends right across the peninsula. The highest point is *Mount Dodabetta*, 8,760 feet. To the south of the "gap" are

(7.) The Aligherries or Cardamum Mountains, remarkable as containing the highest mountain in India south of the Himalayas, Anamalli, 8,837 feet.

2. Tablelands.—The two great tablelands of India are:—

(1.) The Northern Tableland, or Plateau of Malwa and Bundelkhand, in central India, and bounded on the north-west by the Aravalli range, and on the south by the Vindhya Mountains.

(2.) The Southern Tableland, or the Deccan, occupying nearly the whole of peninsular India, and bounded on the east and west by the Eastern and Western

Ghats, and on the north by the Vindhya and the Satpura Mountains and the valleys of the Narbada and the Tapti.

3. Plains.—The Great Plain of Northern India extends across the country between the northern tableland and the Himalayas. Its south-eastern slope, towards the Bay of Bengal, is drained by the Ganges, and its south-western slope by the Indus; hence its division into the "Plain of the Ganges" and the "Plain of the Indus."

Within the latter is comprehended the fertile Punjab, the Great Indian Desert (or *Thar*), and the Runn of Cutch. In the north of the plain of the Ganges is the malarious swamp called the "Tarai;" with this exception, the plain is fertile and productive, supporting an unusually dense population. The *Kast and West Coast Plains* lie between the Ghats and the sea; the eastern plain is much wider and more fertile than the western, the extreme breadth of which nowhere exceeds 50 miles.

4. **Bivers.**—The rivers of India are naturally divisible into two great sections, viz., those draining the south-eastern slope into the Bay of Bengal, and those draining the south-western counter-slope into the Arabian Sea.

The principal rivers are:-(a) The Brahmaputra, Ganges, Mahanadi, Godaveri, Kistna, and Cauveri, draining the south-eastern slope into the Bay of Bengal. (b) The Indus, Narbada, and Tapti, draining the south-western counter-slope into the Arabian Sea.

(1.) The **Brahmaputra** (1,630 miles) rises in the vast glaciers on the northern slopes of the Himalayas, and flows east for several hundred miles, but turns south through Assam, and in its lower course divides into several channels, some of which unite with the eastern outlet of the Ganges.

(2.) The **Ganges**¹ rises on the south slope of the Himalayas, and, after a south-east course of 1,500 miles through the great plain, finally enters the Bay of Bengal by numerous channels, of which the Hugli is the most important. The Ganges is navigable for the largest vessels to Chandernagore, while light steamers can go up to Cawnpore, and thence by canal to Hardwar, more than 1,300 miles above its mouth. The chief tributaries are the *Jumma* and *Sone* on the right, and the *Goomti, Gogra, Gundak*, and *Coosi* on the left, bank.

(3.) The **Mahanadi**, though notorious for its destructive floods, is yet navigable by boats for 400 miles. Its length is 520 miles, and the area of its basin is 70,000 square miles. Its extensive delta formed the old province of Cuttack.

(4.) The **Godaveri** rises in the Western Ghats, not far from the Gulf of Cambay, and flows south-east for 900 miles, entering the Bay of Bengal by two large channels. The navigation of this river is impeded by several rapids.

(5.) The **Kistna** also rises on the eastern slopes of the Western Ghats, and has a rapid and unnavigable course of 800 miles.

(6.) The **Cauveri** rises in the Western Ghats and enters the coast-plain by two magnificent falls, of which the upper is 370, and the lower 460, feet high.

peaceably along the valleys and seeking out for itself the lowest levels. Here it receives the mund and drainage of the country round, absorbs tributaries, and rolls forward with an everincreasing volume of water and silt. Finding its speed checked by the equal level of the plains and its bed raised by its own silt, it splits out into channels like a jet of water suddenly obstructed by the finger or a jar of liquid suddenly dashed upon the floor. Each of the channels to right and left. In the case of the Ganges, the country which these many offshoots and/se forms the delta of Bengal."—The Times.

^{1. &}quot;The work done by the Ganges, as the water-carrier and fertiliser of the density populated provinces of Northern India, from its source in the Himalayas to its mouth in the lay of Bengal, entitles it to rank as the foremost river on the surface of the globe, and fully sx-cuses the affectionate revence and the divine homour paid to it by the Hindux. A great river like the Ganges has three distinct stages in its fift from its source to the sea. In the first stage it dashes down the mountain sides, cutting out for itself deep guilles in the sould rock and ploughing up glens and ravines upon its way. The second stage is where it emerges from the mountains on to the plain, running theu more

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It enters the sea by two branches, which enclose a delta 80 miles long. The south-eastern branch, the *Colerun*, is extensively used for irrigation.

(7.) Of the minor streams that flow into the Bay of Bengal the principal are the Bramini, between the Mahanadi and the Ganges; the North Pennar and South Pennar, and the Palar, all of which rise in the hills of Mysore.

(8.) The Indus (1,800 miles) rises in the tableland of Tibet, and flows first north-west through Kashmir, and then south through the Punjab and Sind, entering the Arabian Sea by numerous mouths. About 470 miles above the sea it is joined by a stream called the *Panj-nad*, which brings the collected waters of five tributary rivers. The district through which these rivers flow is called the Punjab—that is, the country of the five rivers. The names of these are the *Jhelum, Chenab, Ravi, Bias*, and *Sutlej*. The Indus is navigable from Karachi (near its mouths) to its confluence with the *Kabul* river at Attock, 900 miles from the sea.

(9.) The Narbada rises in the highlands of Central India and flows west between the Vindhya and the Satpura Mountains into the Gulf of Cambay. It is 800 miles long, and is throughout rapid and unnavigable.

(10.) The **Tapti** rises in the Satpura Mountains and flows west through the valley formed by them and the northern edge of the Deccan. Both the Narbada and the Tapti are subject to sudden and destructive floods.

(11.) Of the smaller streams draining the south-west slope, the chief are the **Luni**, which rises in the Aravalli Hills and flows into the Runn of Cutch; and the **Mahi**, rising in the tableland of Malwa and entering the Gulf of Cambay.

5. Lakes.—Small and unimportant. Among them are the *Chilka* and *Palicat Lagoons* on the east coast; the Lagoons of the Malabar Coast; *Lake Kolar*, formed by the expansion of the Kistna and the Godaveri; and *Lake Wular*, similarly formed by the Jhelum.

CLIMATE.—The climate of India is hot, except only in the higher mountain regions, where a cool temperature results from elevation above the sea. These elevated tracts are, accordingly, much resorted to during the hot season.

The lower slopes of the Himalayas, in the north of India, the Ghats, off the western coasts of the peninsula, and the region of the Nilgiri Hills, in the south, are well known for their cool atmosphere and their refreshing breezes. In like manner, the mountain districts in the interior of Ceylon, though only a few degrees distant from the equator, enjoy a cool and invigorating temperature. The seasonal changes in India are those from rain to drought, and the reverse, and are intimately connected with the monsoons or periodical winds which prevail throughout southern Asia. The monsoons bring rain or drought alternately to the plains of India, according as they have passed over the ocean or over inland regions. On the Malabar Coest, the south-west monsoon (which blows from April to September) is accompanied by rain, which falls in torrents along the whole seaward face of the Ghats. On the Coromandel Coast, on the other hand, the north-east monsoon (October to March) is accompanied by rain. But the eastern side of India is generally hotter and more arid than the western coasts of the peninsula. These changes of the monsoons regulate, in great measure, the habits of life of the Indian population.

PRODUCTIONS.—The natural productions are rich and varied.

(1.) The gold and gens for which India is traditionally celebrated are of less real value than the coal and iron which are found extensively diffused through large portions of the country. Good coal is worked to the north-westward of Calcutta, and there are iron-works in Malabar and other localities. *Tin, copper,* and other metals also occur. There are rich deposits of rock-sall in the Punjab.

(2.) The vegetable products are of high value. India supplies all, or nearly all, the fruits and other plants mentioned as belonging to southern Asia in general. Vast forests of teak and other trees clothe the seaward face of the Ghats, and forests extend from the plains of northern India far up the declivities of the Himalayas. The least productive part of India is the region known as the Great Indian Desert, and the neighbouring tract called the Runn of Cutch. The latter is alternately an arid and sandy waste, or a vast swamp, with the seasons of drought and moisture.

(3.) Of the animals, the principal are the domestic and wild *elephant*, the maneless lion (in Guzerat and Rajputana), the tiger, leopard, wolf, hyena, rhinoceros, buffalo, wild ass, deer and other game, and monkeys. Besides the ordinary domestic animals, there are the camel, the humped ox, the yak, and the Kashmir goat.

INHABITANTS.-According to the Census of 1891, the population of India amounts to 286,000,000-an average, for the whole country, of more than 200 persons to the square mile. Upwards of 220 millions are under direct British administration ; and the great bulk of the remainder, though with various native sovereignties, are under the controlling power of Great Britain.¹

Race.—The great mass of the people of India (six-sevenths of the whole) belong to the *Hindu race*, the various families of which, however, exhibit many points of difference. The inhabitants of the provinces that border on the lower Ganges are of small stature and slender frame ; those of the more inland provinces are a people of larger proportions and greater strength. There are, besides, settled in various parts of India, and intermingled with the Hindu population, descendants of Arabs, Armenians, Afghans, Turks, and other races, together with Parsis,² Jews, and people of various European nations (principally British).

Religion and Education .- The Hindus are uniformly followers of the Brahmanical religion, worshipping the Hindu trinity, of which Brahma, Vishnu, and Siva are the members. The division into castes is one of their most characteristic social usages. Of that portion of the population of India which is not included among the worshippers of Brahma, by far the greater number are Mohammedans. The total number of Mohammedans is upwards of 57,000,000. There are also 7,000,000 Buddhists, 2,000,000 Sikhs, 1,500,000 Jains, 90,000 Parsis, and 17,000 Jews. Christianity is making rapid progress, and the native Christians now number over 24 millions. Education is also making some progress, and there are many thousands of Primary Schools. a large number of Secondary Schools and Colleges, and five Universities.

INDUSTRIES.—Agriculture has always been, and still is, the chief industry in India; but there are also important native manufactures of fine textile fabrics and metal wares, and the internal and toreign trade is very extensive.

Rice, millet, and pulse are the staple foods of the great mass of the population, who live mainly upon a vegetable diet-not less from its superior economy and from the natural influences of the climate, than from religious prejudices in its favour.³ The culture of the poppy-for the purpose of extracting opium

 1. But vast as is its population, India is yet, relatively, less populous than several countries of Europe. The average density, according to the last Census (1991), is about 100 persons per sumer mile less than is the case in the Unider with the last census of the country are much more populated in orth-west of India, the sevent the Hindus abstanal together from populated; those in the north-west of India, the sevent with the Hindus abstanal together from an immersement with persons to the square mile, or less than 500 pers

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—is very extensively pursued in some of the provinces within the valley of the Ganges, and also on the plateau of Malwa, to the northward of the Vindhya Mountains. Indigo, cotton, the sugar-cane, the coffee-plant, and the mulberry, are objects of culture in various parts of India. The tea-plant is extensively cultivated in Assam and Bengal, and more tea is now imported into Great Britain from India than from China. Wheat is now largely grown for export.

Fine silks and muslins, with shawls and other articles of ornamental attire, and cotton fabrics, constitute the chief produce of Indian manufacturing skill.

Commerce.-The import of manufactured goods, principally from Great Britain, and the export of raw produce and native manufactures, are the distinguishing features of the extensive foreign commerce of India.

The annual value of the Foreign Sea-borne Trade of British India is about 190 millions sterling; the imports amounting to about 85 millions, and the exports to 105 millions sterling.

The trade of India with the United Kingdom is considerably more than one-half of its total trade, and the Anglo-Indian fleet of London is second only to the Atlantic fleet of Liverpool.

Ports.-The seven great ports of India, in the order of their importance, are Bombay and Calcutta, Rangun and Madras, Karachi, Tuticorin, and Chittagong. Of these, Bombay and Calcutta are by far the most important ports in India, and together do nearly four-fifths of the entire maritime trade of the country.

The means of internal communication in India were formerly very defective, but there is now a great network of main and district roads throughout British India, and 17,000 miles of railways are already open for traffic.

GOVERNMENT.—Nearly the whole of this immense country is directly or indirectly under British government. Three-fifths of the vast region lying between the Himalaya Mountains and Cape Comorin are included within the limits of British India, and are subject to the direct rule of authorities appointed by the British Crown.

The remainder is divided between various Native States, of which there are a vast number (many hundreds in all), attached to Britain by various ties. but all more or less dependent upon British power. These are sometimes called "Tributary" or "Feudatory" States. Their rulers assume various titles. The Sovereign of Haidarabad, the largest of the Native States, is called the *Nizam*; the ruler of the larger portion of Guzerat is known as the *Guiconar* or Gaekwar. More frequently, however, the title of Maharajah or Rajah is borne by the Native princes.

The Government of the Indian Empire is controlled by the Secretary of State for India,' aided by a consultative Council of not less than 10 mem-The SUPREME GOVERNMENT IN INDIA is exercised by a Governorbers. General or Viceroy, who represents and is appointed by the Crown, assisted by an Executive Council of 6 members, including the Commander-in-Chief of the Imperial Forces in India. Other members are added to form a Legislative Council for making laws and regulations for the Indian Empire generally, and for those Provinces which have no Local Councils.

India Company—a body of merchants originally incorporated in the reign of Queen Elizabeth— subject only to a limited control on the part of the Grown. But in this year the political func-tions of the Company were terminated by Par-liament, and the whole of their wart dominions brought under the direct authority of the British Grown. The Queen of England formally assumed the tile of Empress of India (Kaisari-Hind), by an Act proclaimed at Data blocks the Frinces of India, on January 1, 1877

hammedan. But mutton is eaten without hesi-tation, and fish is largely consumed, whenever it is cheaply obtainable. In all hot countries, however, vegetable dist is preferred by the mass of the people. The Greenlander, who consumes iwelve pounds weight of meat in a day, and the Hindu, whose chief nutriment is derived from rice, act in each case upon the instinctive im-pulses that are always associated with climate and other conditions of physical geography. 1. Prior to the year 1855, all the provinces of British India were under the rule of the East

The Annual Bevenue amounts to about 85 millions, and the Expenditure to about 844 millions sterling. The total Debt is over 200 millions sterling. The European Army consists of about 73,000 men, and the Native Army of about 150,000 men.

DIVISIONS.—India is politically divided into (1) British Possessions, (2) Native States, (3) Foreign Possessions.

The territories under direct British administration were formerly divided into the *three* "Presidencies" of Beugal, Madras, and Bombay, and the term "Presidency" is still applied to these three Provinces or Governments. But British India is now divided, not into *three* "Presidencies," but into *eight* "Presidencies and Provinces," each with its own separate civil Government, subject to the Supreme Government at Calcutta, which derives its authority from, and acts under the orders of, the Secretary of State for India, who, as a Cabinet Minister, is directly responsible to the British Parliament.

The Native States of India are all governed by Native Princes with the help and under the advice of a British Resident or Political Agent, stationed at each of their Courts by the Viceroy.

The provinces of British India are Bengal, the North-West Provinces and Oudh, the Punjab, the Central Provinces, Burma, Assam, Madras, and Bombay.

Bengal, the North-West Provinces and Oudh, and the Punjab, are under *Lieutenant-Governors*; Madras and Bombay, under *Governors*; and the Central Provinces, Assam, and Burma, under *Chief Commissioners*. A large number of the Native or *Feudatory States* are attached to Bengal, the North-West Provinces, the Punjab, the Central Provinces, Madras, and Bombay.

Ajmir, Berar, and Coorg, with the Andaman Islands, are under the direct administration of the Governor-General. Berar is only provisionally under British administration. Mysore was restored to the Native Government in 1881.

BENGAL, the most populous and productive of all the British Provinces in India, has an *area* of 150,000 square miles, or three times that of England, and a *population* of 71 millions (more than twice that of the United Kingdom), or over 760 persons to the square mile of the estimated cultivable area.²

Bengal includes, besides the lower portions of the Ganges and the Brahmaputra valleys, the former province of Cuttack, at the mouth of the Mahanadi. The greater part of the presidency forms a vast alluvial plain, which is by far the most fertile and closely cultivated part of India. The principal industry is agriculture, and immense quantities of rice are grown. Besides rice, wheat, maize, and barley are also grown. Among its other products, the most important are opium, indigo, and jute. The coal mines in the hills are now largely worked, and there are important native manufactures.

Before 1835, Bengal was under the administration of the Governor-General. In that year, however, it was placed under a Lieutenant-Governor, who is assisted by a Legislative Council.

All the great cities of this part of India are situated either on the Ganges or its various tributary streams, and the great lines of communication with the interior follow the course of the river and its tributaries. The principal towns in Bengal are CALCUITA, MOORSHEDABAD, PATNA, CUITACE, and DACCA.

2. Before 1883, Bengal was under the administration of the Governor-General. In that year, however, it was placed under a Lieutenant-Governor, who is assisted by a Legislative Council.

^{1.} Each of the British Provinces is divided into Commissionerabips and Districts, termed "Regulation Districts," in contradistinction to the "Non-Regulation Districts," i.e., those Districts-protocted and semi-independent Native States-which are not under regular British rule.

CALCUTTA, the chief city of Bengal and the capital of British India, stands on the east bank of the River Hugli, the principal arm of the Ganges, at a distance of a hundred miles from the sea. Including Howrah and Ball, on the other side of the river, it has over a million inhabitants. The navigation of the Hugli is dangerous, but its channel is traversed by the largest sea-going vessels. and an immense trade is carried on, chiefly with England and China.

Plassey, the scene of Clive's great victory in 1757, lies to the northward of Calcutta. Moorshedabad (132) has important native manufactures. Patna (167), on the right bank of the Ganges, is the principal town in Bahar and the centre of the rice trade. The largest town in the maritime district of Cuttack is Cuttack (49), which is situated on an arm of the Mahanadi. Dacca (84), on the eastern arm of the Ganges, is connected by railway with Calcutta; it is noted for its manufactures of muslin.

THE NORTH-WEST PROVINCES embrace the upper portion of the Ganges valley (including the Dooab, as the tract between the Ganges and the Jumna is called), and enclose OUDH on all sides but the north, which is bounded on that side by the independent State of Nepal. The whole Province has an area of 106,000 square miles, or twice that of England, and a *population* of 47 millions, an average of 442 to the square mile.

The chief industry in this division is agriculture, and large crops of wheat, rice, and other grains are grown. Indigo, opium, cotton, and sugar are also successfully cultivated, and much tea is now grown in the sub-Himalayan districts.

The North-West Provinces were separated from Bengal in 1833. Oudh was annexed in 1856, and until 1877 formed a distinct government under a Chief Commissioner. Since then, the North-West Provinces and Oudh have formed. one Province under a Lieutenant-Governor.

The principal towns are Allahabad, Benares, Cawnpore, Agra, Meerut, and HARDWAR, in the North-West Provinces, and LUCKNOW and FAIZABAD in Oudh.

ALLAHABAD (177), at the junction of the Jumna and the Ganges, and Benares (222), on the north bank of the Ganges, are two of the largest among the inland cities of India, and are among the sacred cities of the Hindus, their numerous temples being the crowded resorts of the devotees of Hindu worship. **Cawnpore** (182), on the right bank of the Ganges, is memorable for the massacred of its English residents during the mutiny of 1857. **Agra** (169) is on the right bank of the Jumna.¹ **Meerut**, notorious as the place where the great mutiny of 1957. of 1857 broke out, is an important military station, 95 miles north-east of Delhi. Hardwar lies on the banks of the Ganges, where it issues from the Himalayas : it is a sacred city of the Hindus.

The capital of Oudh is LUCKNOW (278), memorable for the defence of the British Residency during the Sepoy insurrection of 1857-58. Lucknow is on the river Goomti, one of the many affluents of the Ganges. Faizabad (80), on the Gogra, was the former capital of Oudh.

THE PUNJAB² embraces the north-western part of the great plain of India, and is so called from the "five rivers" which water it. Three-fourths of this immense territory are under direct British rule. the rest belongs to the 36 Dependent or Feudatory Native States attached to the Province.

^{1.} Near Agra is the Taj Makal, a magnificent 2. The Punjab was proclaimed British terri-building of white marble, and inlaid with tory in 1868, and was placed under a Board of perclous genus, erceted by the Emperor Shah Administration until 1858, then under a Chief Jehan as a tomb for himself and his favourite Governor was appointed.

The area of the "Regulation Districts" of the Punjab is 111,000 square miles -rather more than twice that of England. The population, in 1891, amounted to 21 millions, an average of 187 per square mile.

About a third of the land is cultivated, and large quantities of wheat, rice and other grains, and cotton, are produced. The principal mineral product is salt, which is found in abundance in the hills—the Salt Range—in the north-west, between the Jhelum and the Indus. The principal towns are LAHORE, DELHI, AMELTSAR, RAWAL PINDI, MULTAN, and PESHAWAR.

LAHORE (177), the chief city of the Punjab, stands on the River Ravi, one of the five tributaries of the Indus. It is celebrated as the former capital of the Sikhs, or native inhabitants, of this part of India. Delhi (193), on the right bank of the Jumna, is historically noted as the former capital of the Mogul Empire (which in the 16th and 17th centuries embraced nearly the whole of India), and has acquired more recent fame from its siege by the British in 1857. Here, on the 1st of January, 1877, the Queen of Great Britain was proclaimed Kaisari-Hind-EMPRESS OF INDL. Amritsari (136), to the north-east of Lahore, is the holy city of the Sikhs. Rawal Pindi (73) is a great military station on the north-western frontier. Multan (75) is on the River Chenab. **Peahawar** (84) is situated to the west of the Indus, not far distant from the entrance to the Khyber Pass, and forms a strong military frontier post. It is now connected by rail with Calcutta via Lahore and Allahabad, and with the rising port of Karachi via Lahore and Multan."

THE CENTRAL PROVINCES, which have an area of 86,500 square miles (nearly as large as Great Britain) and a population (which includes a large proportion of the aboriginal races of India) of 10 millions, include the interior districts enclosed between the upper courses of the Narbada and the Mahanadi, and traversed from east to west by the Satpura Mountains.

This division was formed in 1861; previous to that year the various provinces were attached to the North-West Provinces and the Punjab. The natural production of these provinces, notwithstanding their great areas of mountain and jungle, are rich and varied. There are large coal-fields, and valuable deposits of iron-ore. Cotton, rice, wheat, and opium are largely grown and exported. The principal towns are JABALPUB, NAGPUB, and SAUGOB.

NAGPUR (118) was until 1854 the capital of the Mahratta kingdom so named. It is connected by rail with BOMBAY and CALCUTTA, and is not only the capital of the Central Provinces, but also an important commercial centre for the richly-productive region between Bengal and Bombay. Jabalpur (35) is an important commercial town, the traffic which passes through it being "larger than that of any other town in India except Bombay." Saugor (45), to the north-west of Jabalpur, is an important military station.

BURMA belongs geographically to, and is therefore described under, "Further India" (see pp. 227-8).

ASSAM was ceded by Burma in 1825, and was included in the Province of Bengal until 1874, when Lord Northbrook placed it under a Chief Commissioner. It has an area of 46,000 square miles, but although the soil is fertile, the province is thinly peopled, the population, in 1891, amounting to 51 millions, an average of 117 per square mile, only about one-fourth the density in Bengal

1. i.e. the "pool of immortality." 2. The town of Simis, situated a few miles south of the Upper suital, in the eastern are, and enjoys an atmosphere which is free from tremity of the Punjab, is a much-frequented the heatt experienced in the lower plains.

The tea plantations, for which Assam is chiefly famous, are in the hands of English capitalists. 'The climate is tropical, and the rainfall, especially in the Khasia States, excessive.'

The only considerable towns in the Brahmaputra Valley are Gauhati and Goalpara, both on the banks of the river. The largest town in the Surma Valley, to the south of the hill region (which includes the Garrow, Khasia, and Jaintia Hills) are Sylhet (14) and Cachar, both on tributaries of the Brahmaputra, and the centres of the most important tea-producing district in India. The annual production of tea in Assam amounts to about 70 million lbs. The province is also rich in coal and iron.

THE BOMBAY PRESIDENCY, which lies wholly on the western side of India, is about 1,000 miles in length, and has a *population* of 19 millions. The Native States attached to the Province, of which the largest are *Cutch* and *Baroda*, occupy a third of the total area, which is about 195,000 square miles.

The principal productions of the Bombay Province are cotton, rice, salt (in the Runn of Cutch), sugar and indigo. Much of the cotton grown in the province is now worked up in the large cotton-factories of Bombay itself. The large province of SIND, which extends over both banks of the Lower Indus, forms part of this Presidency. The following are the largest towns:-BOMBAY, SURAT, BABOOHE, POONA, SATTARA, HAIDARABAD, and KABACHI.

The city of **BOMBAY** (804), the capital of the Presidency, is situated upon the island of Bombay, which closely adjoins the coast. Bombay has an excellent harbour, one of the best in India. It is rapidly rising in importance as the chief commercial centre of the Indian Empire, and already commands a larger amount of foreign trade than Calcutta. Bombay is historically noteworthy as one of the earliest English possessions in the East, having been part of the wedding dowry given to Charles II. with his Portuguese bride, Catherine of Braganza, in 1661. Surat (108), to the north of Bombay, is at the mouth of the Tapti River. Baroche, further north, is on the Narbada. Poona (160), an important military station, and Sattara lie on the tableland of the Deccan to the eastward of the Ghats. The most important place in the province of Sind is the rising port of Karachi (104), a short distance west of the mouths of the Indus. Haidarabad (58), also in Sind, is on the east bank of the Indus; near it is the village of *Miani*, where Sir Charles Napler gained his famous victory in 1843.

THE MADRAS PRESIDENCY embraces a large part of Central and Southern India, including both the eastern and western shores of the peninsula, besides an extensive portion of the interior plateau. Its *area*, 140,000 square miles, is nearly three times that of England, while its *population* numbers $35\frac{1}{3}$ millions, an average of 253 per square mile.

The "Presidency" of Madras includes the old provinces of the Carnatic, the Circars, Coimbatore, Malabar, and Canara. Its principal towns are MADRAS, TANJORE, TRICHINOPOLY, MADURA, TINNEVELLY, TUTICORIN, and CALICUT.

The city of **MADRAS** (450), the capital of the Presidency, is on the Coromandel Coast. It is destitute of any natural harbour, the sea in front being merely an open roadstead. Its commerce is, nevertheless, very considerable and is increasing, especially since the construction of the new *pier* and *harbour* of *refuge.*² Masulipatam (39) and Coringa are to the north of Madras—the former near the mouth of the River Kistna, the latter at the mouth of the

^{1.} At Oherrapus, i the annual rainfall amounts, in some years, to 660 inches. 2. The eastern coast of India is nearly devoid, bar Coast, abounds in good natural harbours.

to the north of Haidarabad, and the surplus revenues of which go to the Nizam's Government. The finest cotton grown in India is produced in Berar. The chief city is Ellichpur.

The State of **MYSORE** (Maisûr), which is also inland, is surrounded by the territories of the Madras Presidency. Area, 27,000 square miles; population, (1891), 5 millions. The city of Seringapatam, seated on an island in the River Cauveri, played a distinguished part in the wars of the last century, when it was the capital of Hyder Ali's extensive dominions. Under his son and successor, Tippu Saib, it was stormed by the British in 1799. Owing to the misgovernment of the Native ruler, this State was placed under a British Commissioner in 1832, but in 1881 it was restored to the native Rajah. The present capital, Mysore, lies about 20 miles south-east of the former capital, Seringapa-tam. The only territory in Mysore now held by the British is the fort and cantonment of Bangalore, near the eastern border.

3. The only Independent Native States are Nepal and Bhutan, on the southern slopes of the Himalayas.

NEPAL lies between the Feudatory States of Sikkim on the east and Kumaon on the west, and is separated from the British provinces of Oudh and Bahar by the pestilential region of the Tarai.

Nepal has an area of nearly 57,000 square miles (and is thus nearly as large as England and Wales), and a population of about 2 millions. Though bounded on the north by the lofty ranges of the Himalaya Mountains, the Nepalese carry on a considerable trade with Tibet. Until the British invasion of 1815, the country was virtually a dependency of the Chinese Empire. In that year, however, a British Political Resident was placed at Khatmandu, the capital.

BHUTAN extends east of Sikkim, and comprises the mountainous region lying between the main ridge of the Himalayas and the British provinces of Bengal and Assam. The inhabitants, who number about 200,000, apparently of Mongolian origin, profess Buddhism, and are under the rule of the Deb Raja, or the secular head, and the Dharma Raja, or the spiritual head. The capital is Punakha, a place of great natural strength.

French and Portuguese Possessions:-Two other European nations-the French and the Portuguese-possess a few stations in India, but they are of little importance either in extent or commercial value.

To the FRENCH belong—**Pondicherry**, a seaport town lying to the south of Madras; **Mahé**, a few miles north of Calicut, on the Malabar Coast; and **Chandernagore**, a small town on the River Hugli, north of Calcutta. These are the remains of a power which long contested with Great Britain the sovereignty of Lable. Which total area is bet 100 generate with a solution of the sovereignty of India. Their total area is but 196 square miles, while the population is under 300.000.

The PORTUGUESE possessions, which together have an area of less than 1,300 square miles, and a population of scarcely half a million, consist of Goa, a small Madras Presidencies; the port of Daman, to the north of Bombay and town and port of Diu, situated on an island off the south coast of Guzerat. The city of GOA was long a splendid emporium of commerce and the chief mart of the Eastern world, but its importance has wholly passed away.

QUESTIONS ON INDIA.

1. What does the Indian Empire comprise? How is India bounded, and what is its area? 2. Describe briefly the coasts of India. 8. By what names are the opposite coasts of India distinguished? 4. Give a brief account of the natural features

of Ceylon. What two articles constitute its most characteristic products? 5. Foint on the map to the following places :--Colombo, Trincomail, the Laccadive Islands, the Makilve Islands, and the Andaman Lalands.

6. What mountain chains and tablelands be-long to India? 7. What portion of India is the Deccan, and what are its natural features? 8. Where is the Great Indian Desert?

Where is the Great Indian Desert:
8. Where is the Great Indian Desert:
9. Describe the principal rivers of India.
10. What kind of climate has india?
11. Mention some among the natural productions of India, mineral and vegetable.
12. Where is the tract known as the Runn of the source
12. Where is the tract known as the Runn of Catch? 13, What is the total population of India? Which parts of the country are most populoas? 14. Besides Hindus, what other races are in-cluded amongst the population of India? 18. What form of religion is professed by the great majority of the Hindu people? 16. Give some particulars concerning the in-dustrial productions of India 17. How is India divided? What portion of India?

India?

18. What are the limits of the province of

Bengal ? 19. Where are the North-West Provinces and

2

20. What is Assam chiefly noted for? 21. Where is the Punjab, and why is it so

21. Where is the range of the Central Pro-colled? 22. What do you know of the Central Pro-vinces? Name the elief towns. 23. Upon what rivers are Calcutta, Benarce, Allahabad, Lucknow, Cawnpore, and Agra

24. Where are Plassey and Simla, and for what are they noteworthy? 25. Where and for what is Delhi celebrated?

26. In what part of India are Lahore, Multan, and Peahawar? Point out their places on the

map. 97. What part of India is included within the 97. What part of four sources and the second seco

Barcener
S0. Where is Sind? Which is its port?
S1. Name some of the provinces that are within the Madras Presidency.

the Magras river is the city of Magras river 32. Where are Arcot, Masulipatam, Tranque-bar, Trichinopoli, and Tanjore? 34. Where are the Nilgiri Hills? For what are they noteworth? 35. Where are Calicut, Cananore, and Manga-36. Where are calicut, Cananore, and Manga-37. Where are calicut, Cananore, and Manga-38. Where are calicut, Cananore, and Manga-39. Where are calicut, Cananore, and Manga-39. Where are calicut, Cananore, and Manga-30. Canadore, Canad

A let's are cancer, cannore, and shange-lore?
 Enumerate as many as you can of the de-pendent Native States of India.
 To which of the above States are the towns of Svinagar, Trivandrum, Cochin, Blooj, Man-diri, and Baroda, respectively?
 Point on the map to the locality of Kashmir.
 For what branch of industry is it noted?
 Name the principal tributary Native States.
 State what you know of Rajputana and Central India.
 To bescribe briefly the Native States of Hai-darabad and Mysore.
 What Native States of the range of the Himolyas are still independent?
 What two other nations, besides Great Britain, possess territories in India? Name some of the possessions of each.

FURTHER INDIA.

FURTHER INDIA (or the Indo-Chinese Peninsula) forms the southeasterly division of the Asiatic continent. It embraces the vast peninsula which extends from the Bay of Bengal on the west to the China Sea on the east, and which stretches to the southward into the smaller and more elongated Malay Peninsula.

With the exception of Siam-the only Native State now independent-the peninsula is divided between Great Britain and France. The British Possessions are on the western side of the main peninsula, and the French Possessions are on the eastern side. Siam lies between them.

British Indo-China includes the province of BURMA (both divisions of which -Upper and Lower Burma-form, politically, part of British India), the STRAITS SETTLEMENTS, and the Protected MALAY STATES.

French Indo-China includes the colonies of COCHIN-CHINA and TONQUIN. and the Protectorates of CAMBODIA and ANNAM.

The smaller Malay Peninsula is divided between Siam and Great Britain.

EXTENT.—The total area of these territories is about 710,000 square miles, or over 12 times the size of England and Wales.

The native kingdom of Siam has an area of 280,000 square miles ; the French Colonies and Protectorates, 196,000 square miles; and the British Possessions and Protectorates, about 235,000 square miles.

COASTS.-Very extensive, and possessing several fine harbours.

The most noticeable features along the coasts of the Indo-Chinese Peninsula are the two great Gulfs of Tonquin (or Tong-King) and Siam, both arms of the China See on the east, and the Gulf of Martaban, opening into the Bay of Bengal, on the west. The two principal headlands are **Cape Negrais**, on the west, and **Cape Bomanis**, on the south. The latter is not only the southernmost point of the Malay Peninsula, but also of the Asiatic continent. The **Strait of Malacca** divides the Malay Peninsula from the island of Sumatra, and forms the main channel of communication between the Bay of Bengal and the China Sea.

NATURAL FEATURES.—Ranges of high ground, lying in the general direction of north and south, with long river-valleys between, form the characteristic features of the Indo-Chinese Peninsula. These are connected, to the northward, with the high region that adjoins the eastern extremity of the Himalayas and the neighbouring provinces of China.

Of the mountain ranges the best known are the Yoma Mountains, which form the natural boundary between Upper Burma and the coast district of Aracan in Lower Burma. The Tipperah Hills to the south, and the Patkoi Bange to the north, of the Manipur Uplands, are on the western borders of Burma. An irregular line of elevations extend southwards from the mountains of Siam, which form the boundary between Siam and Lower Burma, to the south of the Malay Peninsula.

There are three extensive plains in this region—the **Plain of Pegu**, the **Plain** of **Slam**, and the **Plain of Tonquin**. The Plain of Pegu adjoins the Gulf of Martaban, an off-set of the Bay of Bengal; the Plain of Slam lies at the head of the Gulf of Slam, which is an arm of the China Sea; the Plain of Tonquin adjoins the Gulf of Tonquin, which is a more northerly arm of the China Sea:

The Indo-Chinese Peninsula has four great rivers—the Irawadi, Saluen, Menam, and Mekong. The Irawadi and Saluen flow into the Gulf of Martaban; the Menam into the Gulf of Siam; and the Mekong, into the China Sea. The **Irawadi** rises on the Chinese frontier, flows south through Burma, and has a total length of 1,200 miles; it is regularly traversed by British steamers as far as BHAMO, 700 miles from the sea. The **Saluen** rises in the mountains to the north of Burma, and has a course of 750 miles, the greater portion of which is navigable. The **Mekong** rises in Tibet and flows through Yunnan, in Western China, Upper Burma, and Siam, its lower course being through Cambodia and Cochin-China. It has a total length of 1,600 miles, but its navigation is rendered difficult by rocks and sandbanks. The course of the **Menam** (900 miles) is entirely within Siam.¹

CLIMATE.—Throughout the Indo-Chinese countries the climate is hot, especially so in the low grounds near the coast, where the air is often unhealthy. The rains are very abundant, but are confined to a brief season of the year.

As in India Proper, the changes of the seasons depend upon the monsoons. In the long and narrow region of the Malay Peninsula, the heat of the Torrid Zone is tempered by the influence of the seas on either side, and the climate of Singapore, at its southward extremity, is not so hot as that of Madras.

PRODUCTIONS.—In all these countries the productions of the vegetable kingdom are of the highest value. The forests comprehend

^{1.} The Menam, like the Nile, annually over. | through which it flows, hence its name, "Meflows its banks, and thus fertilises the country | Nam," " Mother of waters."

many valuable kinds of wood, and various *drugs*, spices, and *gums* are native to this region. The mineral wealth is also considerable, and *gold* is extensively employed in Siam for purposes of architectural adornment and numerous other uses.

INHABITANTS.—The entire region is estimated to contain about 32 millions of inhabitants, of whom about 6 millions are in Siam, 18 millions in French Indo-China, and probably 8 millions in the British portion of the peninsula.

Race and Language.—The Indo-Chinese are a race bearing more resemblance to the Chinese than to the people of India. They are more robust in frame than the Hindus, but are short in stature, compared to the European type. Their skin is of a dark sallow brown or olive colour. The various languages spoken are monosyllabic, and are closely allied to the Chinese and Tibetan tongues.

Religion.—The Buddhist worship uniformly prevails, and its rites are celebrated with great pomp and display. The temples are gorgeously decorated, and there is much of barbaric wealth and splendour in the palaces of the Native Princes and of the chief nobles.

INDUSTRIES.—The industry of these countries is principally agricultural, but there are skilful workers in metal in the towns, and the foreign trade is very large.

Rice is the prime article of food. The sugar-cane is extensively grown, especially in Siam. The mulberry is also an object of extensive culture, for the sake of the silkworn, which is largely reared in Cochin-China and Tonquin. Cotton, indigo, and tobacco are grown; but, until recently, the produce of these and other articles of tropical growth has been due rather to the spontaneous fertility of the soil than to any labour or skill bestowed upon their culture.

Commerce.—The bulk of the oversea trade of Burma and the Straits Settlements is carried on with the United Kingdom, and there are regular lines of British steamers to Rangun and Singapore. French steamers call at Saigon and the chief ports of Annam and Tonquin.

GOVERNMENT.—The only independent native government in the peninsula is that of Siam. Burma is placed under a Chief Commissioner, and, politically, forms one of the great Provinces of British India, and is therefore under the direct control of the Supreme Government at Calcutta. The Straits Settlements forms a Crown Colony, and its Governor controls the British Residents in the Native Protected States of the Malay Peninsula.

The Government of the French Possessions and Protectorates is carried on by native officials under the direction of the Governor-General of French Indo-China at Saigon, with Residents at the capital and chief towns of these countries. The native Sovereigns of Annam and Cambodia have not been deposed, but their power is little more than nominal.

DIVISIONS.—The three main divisions of Further India are (1) British Indo-China, (2) Siam, and (3) French Indo-China.

The political and commercial capitals of British Indo-China are **Bangun** and **Singapore**; of Siam, **Bangkok**; of French Indo-China, **Saigon** and **Hué**.

BRITISH INDO-CHINA includes the Province of Burma, the Straits Settlements, and the Native Protected States of the Malay Peninsula.

BURMA, which is, politically, a Province of British India, includes the western division of the Indo-Chinese Peninsula.

Burma is bounded on the north and north-east by China; on the east, by Siam; on the north-west, by Assam, Manipur, and Bengal; and on the west and south, by the Indian Ocean.

The area of the entire province, including the tributary Shan States, is estimated at 200,000 square miles, and the *population*, according to the recent Census (1891), numbers 91 millions, or 47 to the square mile. The population is much more dense in the lower division of the province than in Upper Burma.

The government of the Province is vested in a *Chief Commissioner*, subordin-ate to the Governor-General and Council of India. The seat of Government is Rangun, a large town on the eastern delta-month of the Irawadi.

LOWER BURMA consists of three districts along the west coast of the peninsula, which have a total area of 87,220 square miles, and a population (1891) of 4¹/₄ millions.¹

ARACAN is a narrow strip of country lying along the east side of the Bay of Bengal. Its moist climate and marshy plains enable it to furnish a vast quantity of rice, which is exported from Akyab, the capital. Aracan, the old capital, is on a river of the same name about 50 miles from the sea.

PEGU, the most important division of Burma, includes the delta of the Ira-wadi, a fertile but unhealthy region. Although the area of this division is only twice that of Aracan, it has five times the population. The staple product is rice. There are also vast forests of *leak* and other valuable tropical woods. RANGUN (181), on one of the branches of the river, is an important seat of trade, and is the commercial as well as the political capital of the whole province.

The districts known by the general name of TENASSERIM extend along the eastern side of the Gulf of Martaban. The climate is tropical, and the produc-tions include rice, cotton, indigo, &c. Most of the land, however, is covered by vast forests, and *teak* and other woods are largely exported. Amherst, Tavoy, and **Mergui**² are small seaports, but with considerable trade. The town of **Maulmain** (58), prettily situated near the mouth of the River Saluen, is the chief port and the chief town, and is an important seat of trade.

UPPER BURMA, which was annexed to British India in 1886, after the third Burmese War, occupies the north-western portion of the peninsula. Its area, including the tributary Shan States, is estimated at 180,000 square miles, or about three times that of England and Wales; and its population at 5 millions.

Upper Burma is physically divisible into the three great valleys of the Irawadi, Saluen, and Mekong. That of the Irawadi forms, in fact, an extensive plain, bounded on the west by the Yoma Mountains. The climate is tropical, and the productions include rice (the staple crop), wheat, maize, tobacco, cotton, indigo, teak, &c. The mineral wealth is also considerable, iron, lead, copper, petroleum, and coal being widely diffused; some gold, silver, and precious stones-especially rubies-are also found. The Irawadi is the main channel of communication, and is now regularly navigated by steamers as far as Bhamo, near the Chinese frontier, 700 miles from the sea. The chief town and capital is MANDALAY (188), on the left bank of the Irawadi. Further south are the former capitals of Amarapoora and Ava, also on the banks of the same river. About one hundred miles south of Ava are the ruins of the ancient capital city of Pagan, with its numberless temples.

were formed into the Province of British Burma in 1962. 2. Large quantities of edible birds' nests, so highly esteemed as an article of luxury by the Chinese, are exported from the islets of the *Mergus Archipelago*.

SIAM occupies the central part of the Indo-Chinese Peninsula, and consists, physically, of two well-marked divisions—the main portion lying north of the Gulf of Siam, and extending from Annam on the *east* to Burma on the *west*. Lower Siam consists of a narrow strip of territory extending along the eastern side of the isthmus, with the northern portion of the Malay Peninsula.

The area of the Siamese Kingdom, including the semi-independent Lao or Shan States in the north, is probably not far short of 280,000 square miles, or nearly 5 times that of England and Wales. The *population* is estimated at 6,000,000, consisting of Siamese, 2,000,000; Chinese, 1,000,000; Laotians or Shans, 2,000,000; and Malays, 1,000,000.

The characteristic physical features of the mainland of Siam are similar to those of Burma, and include the extensive valleys and plains of the **Menam** and the **Mekong**. The basin of the former is entirely within Siam; the latter waters successively Eastern Tibet, the Chinese province of Yunnan, the Shan States, Siam, Cambodia, and Cochin-China. The northern highlands are inhabited by various Shan tribes, some of which are entirely independent, while others acknowledge the suzerainty of Siam by the payment of a small tribute. The States of *Kedah*, *Patani*, &c., in the northern part of the Malay Peninsula, also send tribute to Bangkok.

The climate is tropical, and the natural productions are rich and varied. Much of the country is covered with dense forests, and teak, sandalwood, &c., are largely exported. The tin mines of the Kulen district, in the southern part of the province of Kedah, in Lower Siam, are being actively worked. The staple export of Siam is rice. There are some manufactures of pottery, iron, &c., but on a limited scale. In fact, the trade and industry of the country is paralysed by the serfdom in which the lower classes are kept by the nobles. In all parts of Siam, the natives are subject to forced labour for a period of one to three months in the year.

The form of Government in Siam is an **absolute monarchy**. The King's revenue is about 2 millions a year, and the expenditure is less than the receipts. There is no Public Debt. The army, service in which is compulsory, is officered by Europeans. The capital of Siam is the busy port of **BANGKOK** (600), on the left bank of the Menam, about 20 miles from the sea. A large number of the inhabitants of this "Venice of the East" live in boat-houses on the river. **Paknam**, at the mouth of the Menam, is the Customs station for the capital, which is connected by rail with **Korat** in the interior. About 45 miles north of Bangkok lies **Ayuthla**, the former capital. **Singora**, an important town on the eastern coast of the Malay Peninsula, is to be connected by railway with **Saibura**, and thence with the **Kulen tin district**.

FRENCH INDO-CHINA includes the eastern and by far the most populous part of the peninsula. The **Colony** of Cochin-China, the **Protectorates** of Cambodia and Annam, with the **Dependency** of Tonquin, have a total *area* of about 196,000 square miles, and a *population* of about 18 millions.

The French Colony of **COCHIN-CHINA** is bounded by the China Sea on the south and east; and by the Protectorates of Cambodia and Annam on the north. It has an *area* of 23,000 square miles (about two-fifths that of England and Wales) and a *population* of about 2 millions, three-fourths of whom are Annamites.

Physically considered, French Cochin-China comprises the delta of the River Mekong and portions of the adjoining plains. The country is one of the most fertile in the peninsula, but also, on account of its hot and moist climate, one of the most unhealthy. Large quantities of rice—the staple product and the largest of its exports—cotton, tobacco, indigo, teak, &c., are exported from the river port of **SAIGON** (100), on the Saigon River, the capital of the colony and also of all the French Possessions in Indo-China. The other chief towns are **Mytho**, Bassac, and Vinh-Long.

CAMBODIA was formerly an extensive and powerful kingdom, but the aggressions of Annam and Siam had, at the time of the French conquest of Lower Cochin-China, resulted in the annexation of most of the provinces and the subjection of the rest of Siam. The latter, however, was erected into a kingdom in 1863, under the protection of France. Cambodia has an area of about 32,000 square miles, and a *population* of between 1¹/₂ and 2 millions.

Physically, Cambodia is included in the basin of the River Mekong. In the forest region of the west is the great lake of *Tali-Sap* or Bien-ho, which is drained into the Mekong by the Tali-Sap River, on which stands **Udong**, the former capital. The internal trade, however, centres at **Pnom-Penh**, the present capital, at the junction of the Tali-Sap and the Mekong, and the foreign trade at the port of **Kampot**, on the south coast.

The formerly independent empire of **ANNAM** lies on the eastern side of the Indo-Chinese Peninsula, and is bounded by the Chinese provinces of Kwang-si and Yunnan on the *north*: by Cambodia, Siam, and Burma on the *vest*: and by the China Sea on the *east*. The total *area* of the Empire is estimated at 140,000 square miles (nearly three times that of England), and the *population* at about 14 millions. Tonquin itself has an area of 35,000 square miles and a population of 9 millions.

Annam consists, physically, of three main divisions—the wide basin of the Song-ka River in the north, a narrow coast-district bounded inland by a lofty chain of mountains, and the almost unknown interior tract between the southern portion of this range and Cambodia.

The first of these divisions forms the province of **TONQUIN**, the whole of which has been absolutely coded to France—the rest of the empire being under the protection of France, but still governed by its native sovereign and officials. The rich alluvial plains of Tonquin produce abundance of rice, which is largely exported from **Hanoi** or **Kesho** (150), a busy port on the Song-ka River, about 100 miles above its mouth.

The southern division of Annam, sometimes called Upper Cochin-China, is well watered by numerous short rivers, on one of which lies Hué (60), the capital of the country. Hué, which was taken by the French in 1883, is strongly fortified, and is still occupied by French troops.

THE STRAITS SETTLEMENTS,¹ on the western side of the Malay Peninsula, form a distinct Dependency of the British Crown. They comprise Penang, Wellesley Province and the Dindings, Malacca, and Singapore, and have an *area* of nearly 1,500 square miles, and a *population* of about 600,000, an average of no less than 400 per square mile.²

Penang, or Prince of Wales' Island, is a small but beautiful and fertile island off the west coast of the Malay Peninsula. It was ceded to the East India Company in 1875 by the Rajah of Kedah (or Queddah). **Georgetown**, on the east coast of the island, is the chief town.

Wellcaley Province, on the mainland opposite Penang, acquired in 1800, and the Dindings, a group of islands 80 miles south of Penang, and a strip of the mainland cut out of the Protected Native State of Perak, are dependencies of Penang.

million dollars a year, and the exports to more than 130 million dollars. The direct trade with the United Kingdom alone amounts to 50 million dollars.

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^{).} So called from their position on the Strait of Malacca. 2. The great commercial importance of the Straits Sottlements may be inferred from the fact that the imports amount to nearly 100

Malacca, the largest as well as the oldest of the Straits Settlements. comprises a strip of territory on the west coast of the peninsula about 240 miles south of Penang. The chief produce is *tapica*. The town of **Malacca** has about 5,000 inhabitants, but its formerly important trade has declined since the purchase of Singapore in 1819.

The great emporium of SINGAPORE (140) is upon an island of the same name, at the extremity of the Malay Peninsula. The island, which is about 27 miles in length and 14 miles in breadth, is divided from the mainland by a narrow strait. Singapore is the seat of the general Government of the Straits Settlements. and the centre of an immense trade with the surrounding countries and the United Kingdom and America. The harbour of Singapore is defended by strong batteries, and there is a permanent British garrison.

.. Nearly the whole of the Malay Peninsula, south of the territories conquered and annexed in 1821, is now under British protection or included in the Colony of the Straits Settlements. The entire region has an area of about 85,000 square miles, and has immense agricultural resources and great mineral wealth.

The Native States of Perak, Selangor, Sungei Ujong, the Negri Sembilan, Pahang, and Johor, are closely connected with the Straits Settlements-the British Residents or Political Agents, under whose advice and direction the native Sultans or Rajahs govern, being directly subject to the Governor of that Colonv.

QUESTIONS ON FURTHER INDIA.

What is the distinguishing feature of their

6. What is the distanguishing reasure of each industry? 7. Under what government are these coun-tries? Name the main divisions of Further India. 8. What portions of the peninsula belong to Britain? Describe briefly the province of Burma. 9. Where are the towns of Akyab, Rangun, and Manimain? 10. What article of produce is derived exten-sively from Arcean? What conditions of physi-cal geography favour this?

What are the principal natural features of Upper Burma? Name the chief town.
 Where are the Shan States?
 What part of the peninsula does Siam

13. What part of the peninsula does Siam occupy?
15. What river is entirely within Siam?
16. What hinders the development of the trade and industry of Siam?
16. What is the form of government? On what is the form of government? On what is the form of government? What portions of the peninsula are included in French Indo-China?
17. What portions of the peninsula are included in French Indo-China?
18. Where are Cochin-China and Cambodia?
19. Name theen:
20. Name the chief towns of Annam, Cambodia, and Cochin-China.
21. Describe the climate and productions of French Indo-China.
22. Why are the "Straits Settlements" so called? Which is commercially the most important? portant?

25. Name the principal protected Native States of the Malay Peninsula.

THE CHINESE EMPIRE.

The CHINESE EMPIRE extends over more than a fourth part of Asia, and comprises an area which is considerably greater than that of all Europe.

But China itself constitutes only a portion of this widely-extended dominion. Tibet, Mongolia, Manchuria, Eastern Turkestan, and Zungaria, with Corea, besides China Proper, are included within an Empire which stretches across 53 degrees of longitude and 34 degrees of latitude-a distance of 3,000 and 2,400 miles respectively-and containing a total area of about 41 million square miles-one-twelfth part of the entire land-surface of the globe-with a population said to amount to 400 millions.

^{1.} The Cocos, or Keeling Islands, in the Indian Ocean, were annexed to the Straits Settlements in 1896, and Christmas Island in 1839.

L OHINA.

CHINA is a large country of Eastern Asia, and is by far the most important portion of the Chinese Empire. It is bounded on the *north* by Mongolia; on the *east*, by the Pacific Ocean; on the *south*, by the China Sea and Tonquin; and on the *west*, by Burma and Tibet.

China is divided from Mongolia by the *Great Wall of China*, a vast rampart of earth 10 to 30 feet high, which runs over hill and valley for 1,250 miles along the northern border-line of China, and was built in order to protect the country from Tartar invasion—a purpose which, like all similar works, it failed to fulfil.

EXTENT.—The area of Ohina is estimated at 11 million square miles, which exceeds by 26 times the magnitude of England and Wales, or nearly 12 times the entire area of the British Islands.

The direct distance from the most southerly point of the province of Kwangtung to the Great Wall north of Pekin, is 1,500 miles, or to the northern limit of the transmural province of Leso-tong, about 1,750 miles. In the south, the width along the 24th parallel, from the Burmese frontier near Bhamo to Amoy, is 1,350 miles, or rather more than the distance between the extreme cestern point of the province of Shang-tung and the western boundary of Kan-su in the north.

COASTS.—The coast-line of China is extensive, being upwards of 2,500 miles, or, if we include the minor indentations and inlets, 5,000 miles, equivalent to 1 mile of coast to every 300 square miles of area. A vast number of islands and islets skirt the coast, especially between the mouths of the Canton River and the Yang-taze-kiang.

1. The chief Inlets are the Guifs of Pe-chi-li and Leao-tong, the Bays of Corea and Hang-Chow, and the Guif of Tonquin.

2. The most important Straits are the Strait of Pe-chi-li, between the gulf of the same name and the Yellow Sea; the Strait of Formesa, between the East Sea and the China Sea; and the Strait of Hainan, between the China Sea and the Gulf of Tonquin.

ISLANDS.—The principal islands are Formosa, Hainan, Hong-Kong, and Chusan.

1. Formosa, or the Beautiful, was so called by the Portuguese; the Chinese call it *Tai-van*, or "Tower Bay," from its principal port. The western districts only are completely subjugated, the central and eastern portions are still occupied by independent aboriginal tribes. At *Kelung*, on the northern coast (which was temporarily occupied by the French in 1885), coal-mines are worked.

2. Hainan, 180 miles long by 100 broad, lies in the south between the China Sea and the Gulf of Tonquin. The coast districts are occupied by the Chinese, but the aboriginal and barbarous tribes of the interior are virtually independent. Its capital is *Kien-Chow*, a populous city on its northern coast. Its chief port, *Kiung-Chow*, on the south-west coast, is open to foreign trade.

3. Hong-Kong was ceded to Britain in 1842.¹ It is hilly, well watered, and tolerably healthy, and its situation, off the mouth of the Canton River, gives it political and commercial importance. Its area is 30 square miles. Its population numbers about 221,500, of whom 211,000 are Chinese. The chief town is *Victoria*, on the north coast of the island.

^{1.} Hong-Kong was taken possession of in 1941, but formally ceded in 1942. The opposite peninsula of Kowiers, which is becoming a populous and thriving district, was ceded in 1961.

4. Chusan, the largest of a group of islands off the entrance to Hang-Chow Bay, was taken by the British in 1840, and held for some time as a guarantee for the payment of the war indemnity.

MOUNTAINS.—The greater part of China is mountainous. Its western and south-western provinces especially are covered with high mountain chains, the peaks of which rise above the snow-line.

All the great ranges within China have a general east-to-west direction, e.g., the ranges of the *Pe-ling*¹ and *Nan-ling*² which enclose the basin of the Yang-taze-kiang; the former separating it from that of the Hoang-ho on the north, and the latter from that of the Si-kiang on the south. The Pe-ling range dips south-east in 113° W. long, and terminates in low hills about two degrees further west. The Nan-ling, on the contrary, after an almost direct course due east for numeric of 1 000 miles courses shouthy north next a point In the west in parals of 1,000 miles, curves abruptly north-north-east a point (25° N. lat., 116° W. long.) about 150 miles west of the port of Amoy, and trends in that direction almost parallel to the coast for 400 miles, finally terminating in the hilly region west of Hang-Chow. This portion of the range is known as the *Ta-ju-ling* or *Bohaa Mountains*. The lofty mountain chain on the western border, separating China Proper from Tibet, and which marks the eastern limit of the great tableland of central Asia, bears the name of Yunling. Of the minor ranges, the most important are (1) the Ta-pa-ling, a southerly spur of the Pe-ling Mountains, between the Yang-taze-kiang and its great northern affluent, the Han-kiang; and (2) the *Yu-ling*, a minor ridge of the Yun-ling, extending eastwards between the basins of the Si-kiang and the Song-ka rivers.

Plains.-The north-eastern part of China forms the extensive lowland known as the Plain of China, which is 700 miles long and covers an area of more than 200,000 square miles. The lower courses of its two great rivers are through this plain, which is very fertile, and constitutes the most populous portion of the Chinese Empire.

RIVERS.—The four most important rivers of China are the Yang-tsze-kiang, Hoang-ho, Si-kiang, and Pei-ho, which together drain more than four-fifths of its total area.

1. The Yang-tsze-kiang,² or "Blue River," is the longest river in the eastern half of the globe, and is navigable for large vessels to Ichang, 1,200 miles from the sea, and for 600 miles further up to the new port of Chung-King—the commercial capital of Western China-it is navigable for smaller steamers, while junks and small boats can ascend some hundreds of miles still higher up the river. Its total length is 3,200 miles; and at Hankow, 700 miles inland, it is fully a mile in width, but its depth and volume vary considerably with the seasons. This great river drains nearly a million square miles of territory.

2. The Hoang-ho, or "Yellow River," like the Yang-tsze-kiang, rises in the plateau of Central Asia, but is not so capable of navigation, owing to sudden changes of depth and volume, and sometimes of channel. Previous to the great floods of 1851-53, its outlet to the sea was about 100 miles north of the mouth of the Yang-tsze-kiang; but it then altered its course, and made an outlet into the Gulf of Pe-chi-li, 300 miles further north than its former embouchure.

3. The Si-kiang, 900 miles long, waters the provinces south of the Nan-ling Mountains. Its estuary-the Canton River-is one of the most important commercial waterways in China.

4. The Pei-ho is formed by the confluence of several rivers at Tientsin-the port of Pekin-and flows into the Gulf of Pe-chi-li.

5. Of the minor rivers that water the districts between the basins of these four great rivers, the most important are (1) the Min, which rises in the

- 1.	re-ung, '	northern mountains."

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re-ung, "northern mountains."
 Ran-ling, "southern mountains."
 The Yang-tars-kiang rises among the south-ern slopes of the Kuen-Luen mountains, and its

Bohes mountains and drains the maritime province of Fo-kien;¹ (2) the upper courses of the Song-ka or Red River, the Mekong, and the Saluen are within the south-eastern province of Yunnan; their middle and lower courses belong to Further India. The Song-ka is a navigable stream, and likely to become of considerable commercial importance.

Lakes .- Three large lakes, Po-yang, Tong-ting, and Tao-hoo, adjoin the course of the Yang-taze-kiang.

OLIMATE.—The climate of China is generally temperate, but it is one of great extremes at opposite seasons. The summers are very hot, and the winters excessively cold. This is the case all over central and eastern Asia.

PRODUCTIONS.—Of natural productions, the *tea-plant* is the most remarkable. It is a shrub of moderate size, which grows abundantly in the south-eastern provinces of the country-Kwangtung, Fo-kien, and Che-kiang-where it is cultivated with great diligence. The leaves are gathered at particular seasons, and according to the period at which they are picked, and the process of drying which they afterwards undergo, they form either the black or green teas of commerce.

1. China abounds in useful and valuable productions of the vegetable world. The orange, mulberry, jujube, sugar-cane, and cotton-plant are native to its soil, and flourish throughout its middle and most favoured belt of country.

2. The mineral produce is also of high value. Good coal² abounds. The mountain provinces of the south-west yield the precious metals, and ores of iron, copper, lead, tin, and mercury are extensively distributed through various parts of the country. There are valuable salt wells in the Min River district in Western China.

INHABITANTS.-China is said to contain upwards of 380 millions of inhabitants, or about one-fourth of the human race. It is by no means certain that this is the case, but the amount-vast as it is-implies a less ratio of population to the square mile than in England.*

China abounds in large cities, and the banks of its rivers and canals literally swarm with human life. Great numbers of Chinese emigrate annually, and they are settled numerously in every part of the East Indian Archipelago, as well as India, Australasia, and California,

Education and Religion -- Education is general, and well advanced. All government appointments are given to candidates successful in repeated competitive examinations. There is no national or State religion, although Con*fucianism*, which is mainly professed by the higher and learned classes, is sometimes regarded as such. The lower classes are mostly *Buildhists*, while vast numbers are attached to the degrading superstitions of Taoism.

1. There is another river of the same name in Western China; it is a tributary of the Yang-tzse-kiang.
2. There are large coalifields in all the provinces of the province of the p

INDUSTRIES.—The great industries of China are agriculture, manufactures, and commerce. The mass of the population derive their subsistence from the soil, which is tilled with extreme care, and the pursuit of *agriculture* is held in the highest esteem. Rice is the chief article of food, and tea the universal beverage. Of *manufactures*, silk and cotton are the most important. The silkworm is a native of China, and is reared in vast numbers throughout the middle and southern provinces.

The manufacture of earthenware is also of national importance, and the term by which the finer description of pottery is commonly known in our own country indicates the fact of its original derivation from China. A great number of earths and other mineral substances are employed in this manufacture, and a place called Kin-te-ching (in the inland province of Kiang-si, south of the river Yang-tsze) is its central seat. The *White Wax* industry and the manufacture of *salt* are among the most important of the indigenous industries in Western China. The carving of ivory, the making of tea-caddies, trays, and other lacquered ware, various works in metal, and, more than all, the art of printing from raised blocks, indicate the skill and ingenuity of the Chinese artisans.

Commerce.—The foreign trade of China, which is chiefly carried on with the United Kingdom, Hong-Kong, and other British Colonies, amounts to about 50 millions sterling a year.

The characteristic and best known product of China is tea, which is exported in vast quantities, not only to the different countries of Europe and the United States, which maintain a maritime intercourse with the Chinese "Treaty Ports," but also by the overland route to the countries of Northern and Central Asia. Besides tea, the Chinese export raw silk and silk goods, sugar, strawbraid, paper, porcelain, lacquered wares, ivory, and various ornamental articles. They import the cotton and woollen goods of England, and the opium of British India, metals and coal, together with a great variety of articles from the islands of the East Indian Archipelago—as pepper, betel-nut, sandalwood, ebony, ivory, and mother-of-pearl, with edible birds' nests, and trepang (or sea-slug), the two latter being highly valued as luxuries.

The foreign commerce of China is carried on through the 22 "Treaty Ports," of which the most important are Shanghai, Canton, Foochow, Hankow, Swatow, Amoy, Tientsin, and Chefoo.

Internal Communication.—There are numerous Imperial roads, but most of the internal Communication.—There are numerous Imperial roads, but most of the internal trade is carried on by means of the magnificent rivers, which are connected together by a network of canale. Of the latter, the most important was the famous Grand Canal, which extends for 700 miles through the great plain, and formed the main highway for the conveyance of rice and other articles to the capital. But the changes in the course of the Hoang-ho, when it abandoned its former bed, and made for fiself a new channel into the Gulf of Pe-chi-H, have destroyed portions of the canal, and rendered it necessary, pending the construction of railways, to adopt a seaward route for the commercial intercourse between Pekin and the provinces to the southward. The telegraph lines are being rapidly extended.

GOVERNMENT.—The Government of China is an absolute despotism, based throughout upon the assumption of parental authority. The Emperor is the recognised vicegerent of Heaven, and father of all his subjects; through all the gradations of society the same notion of parental authority is carefully preserved. The mandarins (as the various civil and military authorities of China are styled by Europeans) constitute nime different orders of rank, each in regular subordination to that immediately above it.

The public **Revenue** is not known, but is supposed to amount to about 29 millions sterling, one-fifth of which is derived from the *foreign customs*, and

^{1.} The greater part of China forms a fertile | the development of railways, but there are only populous plain, and is specially well adapted for | two short lines in the whole empire.

the rest chiefly from duties and taxes on *land, salt, optum*, and rics. The Expenditure is mainly for the army, which is estimated to cost about 15 millions sterling a year. The total external Debt is about 5 millions, and the internal Debt about 53 millions.

The military forces of China are divided into two great divisions, the Tartar and the Chinese, and number upwards of 1,000,000 men. The imperial navy consists of numerous war-junks, 8 wonclade, and a number of cruisers, gunboats, and torpsdo-boats, and other vessels, some of which were built at the Chinese arsenals at Shanghai and Foochow.

DIVISIONS.—China Proper is divided into 18 Provinces, hence its native name—Shi-pa-shông, "the eighteen Provinces."

Provinces.	Capitals.	Provinces.	Capitals.
1. Pe-chi-li 2. Shantung	Pekin. Tsinan. Taiyuen. Kaifong. Nankin. Nganking. Nanchang. Hangchow. Foochow.	10. Houpeh . 11. Hoonan . 12. Shensi . 13. Kansu . 14. Szechuen . 15. Kwantung . 16. Kwangsi . 17. Kwelchow . 18. Yunnan .	Wuchang. Changaha. Si-ngan. Lanchow. Chingtu. Canton. Kweijang. Yunnan.

Not included in the above list is the Transmural Province of Sking-king or Leaotong (capital, *Mukian*), incorporated with China after the conquest of the country by the Manchu Tartars in 1644, and the two Insular Provinces of Formess (capital, Tai-wan-fu) and Haiman (capital, Kin-Chow).

TOWNS.—The cities of China are generally of large size—many of them have each several hundred thousand inhabitants. Pekin, the capital of the Empire, contains at least a million of inhabitants, and Canton is nuch more populous. Among the most important cities, besides Pekin and Canton, are Shanghai, Nankin, and Hankow—all three situated within the valley of the Yang-taze—and Hangchow, Ningpo, Foochow, and Amoy, on the coast to the south of the River Yang-tsze.

PERIN (1,000), or the "Court of the North," the capital of the Chinese Empire, is in the north-eastern part of the country, near the River Peiho, and not far from the Great Wall; 50 miles from its mouth. Nankin (450), which, as the "Court of the South," ranked second in importance to Pekin, the "Court of the North," is on the south bank of the Yang-taze. Shanghai (400), on the coast at the southern entrance to this great river, was first opened to European commerce in 1842, and has become the chief commercial emporium of China. Hankow (800), higher up the river, is the chief mart of the tea districts in the interior. Ichang (over 1,000 miles from the sea), is an important port, and 600 miles further inland is Chung-King, the new "Treaty Port," on the Upper Yang-tzze. Foothow (600) is a great *ica* port. Amoy (100) is an important manufacturing and commercial town on an island off the coast of Fokien, opposite Formosa. Si-ngan, the capital of the Province of Shen-si, is a walled city, 6 miles square, and the largest town in the interior of China. Canton (2,000), the "City of Parfection," was long the sole point of intercourse between the Chinese and the people of other lands, and the only emporium of the tea trade. This great industrial and commercial city stands at the head of an extensive estuary—the Canton River; one island (the second in point of size) of the entrance of the Canton River; one island (the second in point of size) of the strong which belongs to Great Britain. On an island on the western side of the estuary is Macao, which belongs to the Portuguese. II. **TIBET**, an inland country, is to the west of China Proper, and is divided from India on the south by the *Himalaya Mountains*. It consists of a vast tableland, upwards of 15,000 feet above the level of the sea, and has an *area* of about 650,000 square miles (or about 11 times that of England and Wales), and a *population*, consisting for the most part of Mongolians, of 6 millions.

Besides the Himalaya Mountains on its southern border, the tableland of Tibet is crossed by stupendous mountain chains—the Karakoram Mountains and the Kuen-Luen Mountains—which extend through it in the direction of east and west. Numerous rivers originate in this elevated region, and descend thence to the surrounding plains. The Sampu or Upper Brahmaputra drains the southern valleys of Tibet. The north-eastern and eastern districts are watered by the Upper Yang-isse-kiang and the Upper Saluen and their tributaries. The lake of Rakas Tal, lying at an elevation of 15,200 feet, gives origin to the Sullej, and the main stream of the Indus originates in the high mountain region of Western Tibet. The ring-like Lake Palis (13,500 feet above the level of the sea) lies between the Sanpu and the Himalayas, to the north of Bhutan. The Tengri Nor (a large lake to the north of Lhassa), which receives the drainage of a large district in the interior, is upwards of 15,000 feet above the sea-level.

The industry of Tibet is almost wholly pastoral. Vast herds of sheep, mountain goats, and buffaloes are reared, and supply the materials for extensive traffic. The fine hair of the Tibetan goat is woven into Cashmere shawls.

Though under the recognised sovereignty of China, the native institutions of Tibet appear to be little interfared with. The real sovereign of the country is the *Grand Lama*, or high-priest of the Buddhist religion, of which Tibet is the centre. The *Chinese Vicercy* resides at the town of **LHASSA**, the capital of the country. Lhassa contains the vast temple of the Grand Lama, which is annually visited by thousands of pilgrims from all parts of Central Asia, and near it is the great monastery of *Debang*, in which no less than 6,000 priests reside. A second Grand Lama—the Tesho Lama—resides at **Shigatze** (on the Sanpu, about 200 miles west of Lhassa), the monasteries of which contain 3,000 priests.

III. MONGOLIA comprehends a vast region of Central Asia, 14 million square miles in extent, lying between China and Siberia, and stretching from the Thian Shan and the Altai Mountains on the west, to the Great Khingan Range on the east. This immense region is but thinly peopled, the *population* being probably less than 2 millions.

This vast upland, which averages about 3,000 feet above the sea, is the true primeval home of the great Mongolian branch of the human family. Its grassy steppe-lands enclose the great desert region known as the GODI or Shamo, a waterless and treeless plain, 2,000 miles in length, with an average width of 500 miles.

To the south and east of north-western Mongolia, the most favoured portion of this vast region, stretches a dreary lifeless waste of shifting sands, destitute alike of vegetation, birds, and animals.

Mongolia is wholly a pastoral region, and the Mongol of the present day is a shepherd and, when occasion requires, a warrior, as his ancestors were in the days of Timor and Genghiz Khan.

The few towns in this vast territory are found upon the frequented routes of commerce. Amongst them are **Ulas-sutal** and **Kobdo**, both within the northwesterly portion of the territory. **Urgs**, the principal seat of the Buddhist lamas, is simply a "camp" on the banks of the Tola, an affluent of the Selenga.

IV .-- ZUNGARIA includes the wild and desolate region between the Thian-Shan and the Altai Mountains, and is bounded by Eastern Turkestan on the south and by Russian Central Asia on the west.

The area of this region is about 150,000 square miles, or three times that of England, but the population, consisting mostly of Chinese exiles and Kal-muck refugees from the Russian "governments" on its western borders, does not exceed 600,000. The largest town, Uruntel, is in the south, on the northern slopes of the Thian-Shan. Kulja, on the River III, is an important place of trade, as it is near the Russian and Chinese borders, and is a muchfrequented route for merchants passing from one country to the other.

V. EASTERN TURKESTAN, the most westerly province of the Chinese Empire, is a vast embayment enclosed by the lofty ranges of the Karakoram, the Pamir Plateau, and the Thian-Shan or Celestial Mountains, and inclining on the east towards the basin of Lob Nor. in which the waters of the River Tarim are lost.

The climate is one of great extremes. In the sheltered valleys within the mountain regions and in the lowlands, wherever irrigation is possible, large crops of grain and fruit are grown. Some silk and cotton are also produced, and large numbers of sheep and horses are reared on the upland pastures. Kashgar (170), the capital of the province, is the largest town, but Yarkand (100) is commercially the most important, as it stands on the trade route from Inner China to Kashmir, in India, through the Karakoram Pass. The Terek Pass trade route, between China and Russia, passes through Kashgar. Khotan, also an important trading centre, lies north-east of the Karakoram Pass.¹

VI. MANCHUBIA is an extensive but little known tract of country lying east of Mongolia, and limited on the northward by the course of the River Amur, the lower portion of which lies within the Russian dominions.²

The country is politically divided into (1) the province of **Tsitsikar** in the north-west, a triangular tract bounded by the Khingan Mountains, the Amur, and the River Sungari; (2) the province of **Kirin-ula** in the south-east, em-bracing the long strip between the Lower Sungari on the north, and the Shan Alin Mountains and the Ussuri River on the east; and (3) the province of Leaotong or Shing-king in the south. The first two provinces are within the basin of the Sungari, the great river of Manchuria; the latter comprises the lower part of the basin of the Leao-ho.

Both Manchuria and Mongolia, along with Eastern Turkestan, were formerly included under the general appellation of Chinese Tartary. The southern province, Leaotong or Shing-king, is inhabited principally by Chinese, and is now regarded as an integral part of China Proper. Its chief city, Mukden or Shinyang (170), lies a hundred miles north-east of the port of **Yin-kao**, on the Gulf of Leaotong. The chief town of the northern province is **Tsitsikar**, which lies on the banks of the Nonni, an affuent of the Sungari. The capital of the south-eastern province is **Tsitsikar**. of the south-eastern province is Kirin, on the Upper Sungari.

VII. COREA, called by the natives Ch'ao-hsien, the "Land of the Morning Calm," is a peninsula which stretches southward from Manchuria between the Yellow Sea and the Sea of Japan. Its

^{1.} This territory has an area of over 430,000 2. The creck is estimated at 332,000 square miles, square miles, and a population of only 500,000. (about six times that of England and Wales), one-half of whom are nomads, was formerly and the *populative* at 12 millions, consisting known as *Okiesse Turkery*, and was first con-guered in 1768.

inhabitants are exceedingly jealous of intercourse with strangers, but the country is being gradually opened to Europeans.¹

The physical characteristics of Corea are similar to those of Italy. The long range forming the backbone of the Corean peninsula, prolonged on the north into the lofty snow-clad range of the Shan Alin, is almost the counterpart of the Apennines and the Alps of Italy. There is this difference, however, that the Corean chain runs along the east coast and is continued due north to the great range on the north, whereas the Apennines bend to the west before uniting with the Alps. The east coast of Corea is high and rugged: the level tracts along the Yellow Sea are skirted with numerous islands, of which the largest is Quelpart. The interior is but little known. The forests are infested with bears, tigers, and other carnivora, and large numbers of cattle are reared. The most important plant-product is **gin-seng**, a root yielding an intoxicating drug. Beans, cowhides, and gin-seng are the chief articles of export; but rice, millet, cotton, and tobacco are also grown, and gold, iron, lead, and coal are worked in various parts of the country. The trade is chiefly with Japan, and, next in importance to that country, with Asiatic Russia and China. But the imports and exports at the three treaty ports-Jenchuan, Fusan, and Yuensan-do not exceed a million sterling a year.

Since the formation of the kingdom in 1392, the power of the Chinese Government over the country has declined, and although the king still sends tribute to the Emperor of China, he is practically independent. The form of government is an **absolute monarchy**, and the administration is based on that of China. The prevailing religion is *Buddhism*, the worship of ancestors is observed as in China, and Confucianism is held in high esteem by the upper classes.

The capital is **SEOUL** or King-ki-tao (220), in the interior of the peninsula, on the river Ya-lu. There is a Japanese colony at Fusan on the south coast, which is now a free port, as well as Jenchuan on the east coast, and Yuensan on the west coast.

QUESTIONS ON THE CHINESE EMPIRE.

1. Name the countries that are included with-

Name the principal inlex and states when the second states and states and states.
 Name the principal inlex and states.
 What two large islands lie off the coast of

China

5. Where is Hong-Kong? What kind of island is it as to natural features? To what nation does it belong?

6. What is the general aspect of China as to natural features?

What is the general aspect of China as to natural features?
 Describe the four chief rivers of China.
 By what characteristics is the climate of China distinguished?
 Among the natural productions of China, which ranks first in importance? State what you know concerning it.
 Manual and the state of the natural produc-tions of China, vegetable and mineral.
 Mention some other of the natural produc-tions of China, vegetable and mineral.
 To what number is the population of China supposed to amount? Is this number, relatively to the area of the two countries, greater or less than the ratio of population in England? What is the prevailing religion?
 Give some particulars respecting the indus-trial pursuits of the Chinase popula.
 What constitutes the chief item in the foreign trade of China? What other articles do the Chinese export?

the Chinese export? 14. What articles do the Chinese derive from

the East Indian Archipelago?

1. The area is estimated at 85,000 square miles-nearly one-half that of England and Wales-and the population at 12 millions, an average of 182 to the square mile. 2. Port Hamilton, a position commanding the

15. What are the means of internal communi-

cation? 16. What form of government prevails in

16. What form of government provide an offlina?
17. Why do the Chinese call their country Sub-pa-Scheg)
18. Name the principal cities of China. Point out their places upon the map.
19. Upon what river is Nankin? What other places are within the valley of the same stream?
20. Where is Shanghai? What branch of trade is carried on there? Where is Canton? What British Colony is at the mouth of the Canton First? River? 21. What kind of country is Tibet as to its

21. What kind of country is river as wree plysical features? 23. Name the chief city of Tibet, and find out its place upon the map. 24. What are the features of Mongolia? What desert does it include? 25. By what habits of life are the Mongols dis-tionald?

tinguished? 26. What do you know of Zungaria and Eastern

Turkestan? 27. Where is Manchuria? What river forms its northerly limit?

28. Where is Corea? Describe its chief physi-cal features. By what are its inhabitants dis-tinguished?

entrance to the Sea of Japan, was occupied by England in 1884, but was restored to China on the understanding that no other power would be permitted to occupy any positions on the Corean coasts.

ASIATIC RUSSIA.

The Asiatic division of the Bussian Empire embraces more than a third of Asia-the largest of the continents-and nearly oneseventh of the total land-area of the globe. But this immense territory is very thinly peopled, the total population amounting to not more than 18 millions, an average of only 3 persons to the square mile.

Asiatic Russia includes three distinct divisions, namely :- Siberia, Russian Central Asia, and Caucasia.

I. CAUCASIA.

This administrative division of the Russian Empire embraces the territory lying between the Black and Caspian Seas, and is divided into Cis-Caucasia, north, Trans-Caucasia, south, of the great chain of the Caucasus.

BOUNDARIES.-Caucasia is bounded on the north by European Russia, on the east by the Caspian Sea, on the south by Persia and Asiatic Turkey, and on the west by the Black Sea.

EXTENT.-The entire province has an area of about 180.000 square miles, or 3 times that of England and Wales.

NATURAL FEATURES .- The greater part of the province is mountainous-the vast chain of the Caucasus extending right across it from the Black Sea to the shores of the Caspian.

The chain of the Caucasus rises above the snow-line, and its higher portions exceed 10,000 feet above the sea. Mount Elburz, which is the highest point of the chain, reaches upwards of 18,000 feet, which is a greater height than that of Mont Blanc. The only road practicable for carriages across the Caucasus attains, at the summit of the Dariel Pass, an elevation of 8,000 feet.

The country lying further south, towards the Persian and Turkish borders, includes part of the Plateau of Armenia. Mount Ararat, nearly 17,000 feet high, is within its limits, near the border-line of Persia and Turkey.

Cis-Caucasia is watered chiefly by the Kuban and Terek, and their tributaries. The Kuban flows west into the Black Sea, but the Terek has an eastwardly course into the Caspian. The Kura (the ancient Cyrus) and its tributary the Arcs (the ancient Araxes) are the chief rivers of Trans-Caucasia. They both flow, by the single stream of the Kura, into the Caspian Sea. The large lake of Gokcha or Sevan, which is within Russian Armenia, is connected with the stream of the Aras.

Climate.-The climate, though temperate on the average, is yet one of great extremes. In the plains towards the Caspian the heats of summer are excessive, while the winter is one of prolonged and extreme severity. This is especially the case in the open plains of the Armenian plateau.

Productions.-The productions of the soil, and the apparently inexhaustible supply of petroleum, constitute the chief wealth of this territory. There are extensive forests, in which wild animals (among them the boar and the antelope) abound ; and the watered valleys yield plentiful crops of grain, besides fruits. Both the vine and the mulberry flourish, and the cotton-plant thrives.

L If we take the Cancasus range as being the boundary between Europe and Asia, then Ois Caucasis is within the limits of Europe, while Trans-Caucasis is in Asia. But these two divi-

INHABITANTS.-The inhabitants of Caucasia are about 71 millions in number. They comprise people of various races and creeds, but the majority are Georgians and other people of what is called the Circassian stock.

The inhabitants of the Caucasus have been famed, in all ages, for their per-The Georgian and sonal beauty, and they still preserve this reputation. Circassian girls, formerly sold as slaves in the markets of Constantinople, were derived from this region.

Industries and Trade.-Agriculture is pursued to a limited extent, but the vast petroleum industry and trade are by far the most important pursuits. The wells around the port of Baku, on the Caspian, afford apparently inexhaustible supplies of this useful commodity.

Much trade is also carried on with Russia by the magnificent military road from Tiflis to Vladikavkas, through the Dariel Pass.

DIVISIONS.—Caucasia forms a single administrative "government" under a Lieutenant-General, responsible only to the Czar. Northern Caucasia or Cis-Caucasia is politically divided into the 3 "governments" of Kuban, Stavropol, and Terek. Southern Caucasia or Trans-Caucasia is divided into 7 "governments," namely, Baku, Daghestan, Elizabethpol, Erivan, Kars, Kutais, and Tiflis.

Towns.-The chief town north of the Caucasus is VLADIKAVKAZ (34), the southern terminus of the Russian railway-system, and an important station at the head of the great military road which crosses the Caucasus by the Pass of Dariel, and joins the Baku-Batum Railway at Tiflis. The old capital of Cis-Caucasia, **Stavropol** (37), lies much further north, on the old route betweer Russia and Trans-Caucasia. **TIFLIS** (104), the capital of the whole territory, and by far the most important city in Caucasia, is on the River Kura, at the southern termination of the great military road across the Caucasus, and is con-nected by rail with **Poti** and **Batum**, the chief ports of Trans-Caucasia, on the Black of Trans-Caucasia. Black Sea, and with Baku, on the Caspian. Another town of some importance is Erivan, situated within Russian Armenia, not far from the foot of Mount Ararat. North-west of Erivan is the strong fortress of Alexandropol.

II. SIBERIA.

SIBERIA includes all the northern belt of the Asiatic continent, comprising the vast plain which slopes from the Altai Mountains to the Arctic Ocean. This immense region is bounded on the north by the Arctic Ocean; on the east, by the Pacific;² on the south, by the Chinese Empire and Russian Central Asia; and on the west, by Russia in Europe.

EXTENT.—The area of Siberia is officially estimated at 4.830,000 square miles, *i.e.*, 83 times the size of England and Wales.

The greatest length of Siberia, from Bering Strait to the Ural Mountains, is 4,000 miles; and the greatest breadth, from north to south, is about 2,000 miles.

^{1.} During the Russo-Turkish war, Kars, Ards-han, and Batam were captured, and the sur-rounding territory was occupied by, and finally coded to Russis by the Treaty of Batam by the Kars, which has been being 55, and 157--is now the chief stronghold of Russis on the Turkish frontier.

COASTS.—The northern coasts of Siberia, though generally low, are deeply indented by several gulfs or rather estuaries, but their navigation is closed during the greater part of the year.¹ The *eastern* coasts are washed by three land-locked seas, Bering Sea, the Sea of Okhotsk, and the Sea of Japan,' all opening into the Pacific.

1. Capes .- The principal capes are North-East Cape or Cape Chelvuskin. the northernmost point of the Old World ; East Cape, the most easterly point of Asia; and Cape Lopatka, the extreme south point of the peninsula of Kamtchatka,

2. Inlets.-The chief arms of the sea are the Gulfs of Obi and Yenisei, Taimyr Bay, and Khatanga Bay on the north, opening into the Arctic Ocean ; and, opening directly or indirectly into the Pacific, are the Gulf of Anadir, a part of the Bering Sea ; the Sea of Okhotsk, with the Gulfs of Penjinsk and Ghijinsk ; and the Sea of Japan, with the Gulf of Tartary.

8. Straits and Channels.—The most notable *channels* and *straits* are Bering Strait, which divides Asia from North America, and is only about 35 miles wide; La Perouse Strait, between the islands of Saghalien and Yezo; and the Gulf, or rather Channel, of Tartary, between the island of Saghalien and the mainland.

4. Islands.—The most important islands are the Liakhov Islands or New Siberia, off the north coast of Siberia, famous for their fossil ivory; De Long Islands, further north, and Wrangel Island, further east; with the Bear Islands, off the mouth of the Kolyma. Off the eastern coast are St. Lawrence Island and Bering Island, in the Bering Sea; the Aleutian Islands; and the Kurile Islands, given to Japan in 1875 in exchange for the Japanese portion of the island of Saghalien or Sakhalin, a large island over 550 miles long, and from 15 to 80 miles broad.

NATURAL FEATURES .- Siberia is a vast lowland plain. The Altai Mountains form its southern border, and impart diversity of surface to the country which adjoins their base. Great level plains, or steppes, stretch out thence to the northward, and become more barren and desolate as they approach the shores of the Polar Sea. Towards the latter, they form a level waste³ of ice and snow during the larger portion of the year, converted into a series of swamps and marshy lakes during the brief summer of these high latitudes.

The easterly division of Siberia is less generally level than its westerly portion. A high chain of nountains, several among which are active volcances, extends through the peninsula of Kamtchatka. The long range of the Yablonoi or Stanovoi Mountains forms the natural boundary between the coast territory and the Amur province and the government of Yakutsk. The central pro-vinces of Siberia are divided from Mongolia by the Altai Mountains.

The three great rivers of northern Asia-Obi, Yenisei, and Lena -belong to Siberia. The rivers Irtish, Tobol, and Ishim are the chief tributaries of the Obi. The chief tributary of the Yenisei is the river Angara, which flows out of Lake Baikal, the largest freshwater lake of Asia.

the Mediterranean or the Baltic. They are "generally shallow, but, contrary to the general law of depith, the coasts are on the whole loldy, except at the mouths of the larger rivers." 3. The Trundras." 4. fake Balkal is nearly 400 miles in length, and has an area of about 15,000 square miles. In winter it is frozen over, but in summer it is regularly navigated by numerous sciencers.



^{1.} The accomplianment of the North-East Pas-sage by Nordenakiold in 1878-79, in the "Vega," was expected to result in a limited maritime intercourse during the summer months between Siberia and Europe. The sease researce separated from the ocean by chained standar. Bering See by the Aloutian Islands; the Sea of Oknotsk by the Kurlis Islands; and the Sea of Japan by the Japan Islands ut they are not true inland seas, like

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11 11 11 Each of the three great rivers of Siberia has a course of between two and three thousand miles before its waters reach the ocean, but the high latitudes through which they flow prevent their being much navigated, excepting in their upper portions. Many of their tributaries, however, which run in a direction transverse to that of the main streams (*i.e.*, east or west), are extensively used as channels of intercourse.

CLIMATE.—The climate of Northern Siberia is intensely cold, and it is only in the south that a moderate temperature is experienced. The extreme north, towards the shores of the Arctic Ocean, exceeds any other region on the globe in the intense severity of its winter, which is prolonged through nearly ten months of the year:

PRODUCTIONS.—Siberia, however, has natural productions of great value. These are of two kinds, belonging to distinct divisions of the natural world—metals and furs.

1. The former occur in the neighbourhood of the Ural and the Altai Mountains, in both of which localities gold is worked to a considerable extent. Mines of silver and lead are also worked in the Altai region, to the east of Lake Baikal. *Iron, copper,* and many other metallic and mineral productions, as well as valuable masses of *porphyry* and other *marbles,* are also supplied by Siberia. *Malachite,* which is a carbonate of copper, is extensively derived thence.

2. The other source of wealth is found in the variety and abundance of animals furnished by nature with warm coats of fur, to enable them to withstand the cold of a Siberian climate. Among these are the sable, otter, mink, ermine, fox, and many others; but their numbers have materially diminished under the pursuit of the Russian hunters.

INHABITANTS.—Siberia, although it embraces nearly one-third of Asia, has a population of less than 5 millions, an average of only 1 person per square mile. A large proportion of the inhabitants of Siberia are exiles from European Russia and their descendants.

The rest are Kirghiz, in the south-west; Kalmucks and other tribes along the borders of the Altai Mountains; the **Tungus**, east of the Yenisei; Ostiaks and other Tartar-Finnish tribes in the west and north-west; and the Samoyedes, along the shores of the Arctic Ocean. The native tribes of Siberia are for the most part idolaters. Those dwelling in the eastern parts of the country exhibit a low and barbarous condition of life, and subsist by hunting and fishing. The people of Kamtchatka are of short stature; they have few settled habitations, and are remarkable for the extent to which they use the dog for the purpose of draught, as we do the horse.

INDUSTRIES.—By far the larger portion of Siberia is too cold and dreary to be fitted for permanent habitation, but there are fertile and cultivated tracts in the south, towards the mountain region of the Altai and the shores of Lake Baikal.

The European inhabitants, most of whom are exiles from European Russia, are engaged in *mining*, *agriculture*, and *trade*. Many of the native tribes of Siberia are famous hunters and fishers.

An extensive overland trade, by caravans, steamers, and barges in summer, and by steages in winter, is carried on through Siberia between Russia and China. Tea and other products of China are thus brought, by a long landjourney (with the frequent aid of river navigation), into Eastern Europe. The Russian and Chinese traders meet at Kiakhta, to the south of Lake Baikal, on the frontier line of the two empires. Opposite Kiakhta is the Chinese frontier town of Maimachin.

DIVISIONS.—Siberia is divided by the River Yenisei into two great divisions—Western Siberia and Eastern Siberia.

Western Siberia, which has an area of 870,000 square miles (nearly 10 times the area of the British Isles), but a population of little more than 24 millions, is divided into the two 'governments' of Tobolsk and Tomsk.

The 'government' of Tobolsk contains the towns of *Tobolsk*, Omsk, Tiumen, and Miask. **TOBOLSE** (20), a fine old town on a high bluff at the junction of the Tobol and the Irtish, was for centuries the capital of Asiatic Russia. Omsk (38), the largest town in Western Siberia, is an important commercial centre, at the junction of the Om and the Irtish. **TOMSE** (37), which lies on the river Tom, near its junction with the Obi, is a centre of considerable trade on the caravan route, or *trake*, as the great trunk line from Perm to Kiakhta is called.

Eastern Siberia includes the 'governments' of Yeniseiak, Irkutsk, Transbaikalia, and Yakutak, which together have an area of 3 million square miles, and a sparse population of a little over 11 millions.

The little town of **Yeniseisk**, on the Yenisei, was formerly the capital, but the seat of government is now the mining town of **KRASNOIARSK**, on the Upper Yenisei. **IRKUTSK**(48), on the Angara, the outlet of Lake Baikal, is the largest town in Siberia, and has important manufactures, and carries on a great trade with China through **Kiakhta**. **YAKUTSK**, on the Lena, is the commercial emporium of Eastern Siberia.

There are several small towns in the Amur region, which includes the provinces of the Amur and Primorskaya. The large island of Saghallen (Sakhalin) was separated from the Primorsk Province and placed under a separate governor in 1889.

Blagoveschenk, on the northern bank of the Lower Amur, is the capital of the Amur Province. The chief towns in the Coast Territory are, the fortified port of Nikolaievsk, at the mouth of the Amur; KHABAROFFKA, the seat of government, at the junction of the Amur and the Ussuri; and the strongly fortified port of VLADIVOSTOK, the chief naval station of Russia in the Pacific.

III. RUSSIAN CENTRAL ASIA.

This division of Asiatic Russia includes the whole of the vast region which extends from Western Siberia on the north, to the borders of Afghanistan and Persia on the south, and is bounded on the west by the Caspian Sea, and on the east by Eastern Turkestan and Western Mongolia.

The total area of this immense territory is considerably over 11 million square miles (or nearly 26 times the area of England and Wales), but with the exception of a few fertile cases and productive valleys, the entire region is very thinly peopled.

NATURAL FEATURES.—This region includes the great Kirghiz Steppe in the north, and the sterile Ust-Urt Plateau, between the Sea of Aral and the Caspian, the deserts of the Kara Kum and Kizil Kum to the east of the Sea of Aral, and the mountainous districts in the east and south-east, bordering on the Altai and the Thian-Shan Mountains, and rising in the lofty Pamir Plateau to an elevation of between 15,000 and 20,000 feet. The chief rivers are the Amu-Daria or Oxus, and the Syr-Daria or Jaxartes; and the largest lakes are Lake Balkash and the Sea of Aral. The northern portion of this region is watered by the Irtish, Ishim, and other tributaries of the Obi; the eastern districts by the III, Lepsa, and other rivers which enter Lake Balkash; and the southern by the Amu-Daria and Syr-Daria (the ancient Oxus and Jaxartes), both of which enter the Sea of Aral.

The Sea of Aral is about 350 miles in length, and has an area of 35,000 square miles. It is shallow, especially on the east and south, and its navigation is still further impeded by numerous islands. Lake Balkash is an irregular sheet of water, and, although it receives many large rivers, its waters are intensely salt.

The climate is one of great extremes, being very hot in summer and intensely cold in winter.

The immense herds of cattle reared on the Steppes constitute the chief wealth of the nomadic Kirghiz tribes. The cases around Khira, Samarkand, and other towns, and some of the valleys in the south-east, are well watered and fertile, and yield abundant harvests of *grain* and *fruit*, but a great part of Russian Central Asia is absolutely unproductive. The Sea of Aral is surrounded by sterile deserts—the Kara Kum and Kizil Kum on the north and east, and the desert Plateau of Ust-Urt on the west.

INHABITANTS.—Most parts of Russian Central Asia are thinly peopled, and the entire region only contains 5¹/₄ millions of inhabitants.

This region is largely peopled by nomadic tribes of Kirghiz and Turkomans, who roam with their herds over the steppes. But they are becoming more accustomed to occupy fixed places of abode and to cultivate the soil, and in the valleys and along the banks of the rivers there is a fixed population industriously engaged in agriculture and domestic manufactures and trade. Millions of sheep and goats are reared, and horses, camels, and cattle are numerous.

DIVISIONS.—Russian Central Asia includes two of the five General Governments into which the Asiatic part of the Empire is divided.

The "General Government" of *Stepnoye*, or the Steppe region, is divided into 4 provinces or governments, which are named after the chief town in each. These towns are Uralsk, on the River Ural; Turgal, in the plain north of the Sea of Aral; Akmolinsk, on the Upper Ishim; and Semipalatinsk, on the Upper Irtish.

The "General Government" of *Turkestan* includes the provinces of Semirstchemsk, Ferghana, and Zarafshan or Samarkand (which lie between Lake Balkash and Bokhara), and also the districts of Syr-Daria and Amu-Daria to the east, and the Trans-Caspian Territory to the west, of the now dependent khanates of Khiva and Bokhara. The political and commercial capital of the whole of Russian Central Asia is TASHKEND, which is situated in a beautiful and fertile oasis, watered by the Bossu, a tributary of the Syr-Daria. Samarkand, in the fertile valley of the Zarafshan, is the present terminus of the Trans-Caspian Railway. Kokand, in the valley of the Syr-Daria, was the capital of the old khanate of Kokand, and is still an important centre of trade.

... The khanates of Khiva and Bokhara, the former to the west of the Lower Amu, and the latter to the north of the same river, which also forms the boundary between the two States, are both under the suzerainty of Russia.

KHIVA.—The Khanate of Khiva, which became a Russian vassal State in 1873, is bounded by the Amu on the east; the Sea of Aral on the north, and the Trans-Caspian Territory on the west and south.

The territory still nominally governed by the Khan has an area of about 22,000 square miles and a population of about three-quarters of a million, consisting mainly of Usbegs, a race of Turkish origin. Cereals and fruits are largely grown, and about 50 tons of raw silk and 8,000 tons of raw cotton are annually produced. The capital, KHIVA, has a population of about 6,000.

BOKHARA.-The Khanate of Bokhara, also a Russian vassal State since the capture of Samarkand in 1868, is much larger and more populous than that of Khiva, its total area being about 92,000 square miles (nearly twice the size of England), while its population numbers about 21 millions.

The cultivable lands are limited to the irrigated strips along the Zarafshan and the Amu and the lower mountain valleys of the eastern division of the country. The productions include corn and fruit, silk and cotton, wine and tobacco. There is a considerable trade with Russia, Persia, Afghanistan and India, the imports being valued at about 16 million roubles, and the exports at 15 million roubles.

The Amir, educated in Russia, is practically a Russian Governor. He has an army of 20,000 men, but can do nothing without the sanction of the Russian Political Agent, nor can be allow a foreigner to enter the country without a Russian passport. The capital, BOKHARA (100), lies within the fertile valley of the Zarafshan, and is only a few miles from the Trans-Caspian Railway, which crosses the Amu into Bokhara, at Charjui, and passes up the Zarafshan valley to Samarkand.

QUESTIONS ON ASIATIC RUSSIA.

1. The Asiatic division of the Russian Empire embraces three distinct territories: give their names and point to each upon the map.

2. What kind of country is Caucasia as to natural features? What famous mountain is within the limits of Russian Armenia?

3. Name the principal rivers of this region.

4. What lake lies within Trans-Caucasia?

5. Describe the climate and productions of Cancasia.

6. To what race of people do the majority of the people belong? By what circumstance have they been in all ages distinguished ?

7. What is the most important industry in Caucasia? What is the chief city of Caucasia, and on what river does this stand?

8. Where are Vladikavkas, Kars, Poti, Batum, Stavropol, and Erivan?

9. How is Siberia bounded? What range of mountains divides it from Russia in Europe? What from the Chinese Empire?

10. What gulfs are on the north coasts of Siberia? What seas and inlets on its eastern dde?

11. What strait adjoins the eastern extremity of Siberia? What two continents does this strait separate?

12. Name the principal islands along the coasts,

and briefly describe the natural features, of Siberia.

13. Name the three great rivers of Siberia.

14. What kind of climate has Siberia?

15. What natural productions of value belong to Siberia?

16. For what purpose is Siberia used by the Russian government? What are the chief pur-suits of the native tribes?

17. At what place, on the Siberian and Chinese frontier-line, is commercial intercourse main-tained between the Russians and the Chinese? What article do the Russian traders obtain from Ohina?

18. Name the principal divisions of Siberia. What is the chief town of each

19. On what rivers are Tobolak, Omsk, Tomak, Krasnolarsk, Irkutsk, and Yakutsk?

20. Where is Vladivostok? Point out its place on the map.

21. What are the boundaries of Russian Cen-tral Asia?

22. Briefly describe the chief natural features, climate, and productions of this region.

28. What are the political divisions?

24. State what you know of the Khanates of Khiva and Bokhara.

THE EAST INDIAN ARCHIPELAGO.

The EAST INDIAN OF MALAY ARCHIPELAGO is an insular region of vast extent to the south-eastward of the Asiatic continent, and enclosed by the Pacific Ocean, the China Sea, and the Indian Ocean.

Of the islands included within this region, the largest is Borneo, the second in size is Sumatra, the third in this respect is Celebes, and the fourth is Java; next in order of magnitude are the Philippines and the Moluccas or Spice Islands. The *western half* of the island of New Guinea is sometimes regarded as a part of the East Indian Archipelago.

The various islands embraced in this region are divided by numberless seas and channels, among which are the following:-The Java Sea, the Celebes Sea, the Banda Sea, the Flores Sea, and the Sulu Sea, while the Timor Sea and the Arafura Sea separate them from Australia.

The Straits of Malacca and Sunda form the two great channels of entrance to this region from the westward. The Strait of Malacca divides the island of Sunatra from the Malay Peninsula; the Strait of Sunda intervenes between the islands of Sunatra and Java; the Strait of Macassar lies between the islands of Celebes and Borneo.

Nearly all ships that proceed from the ports of Europe to the coasts of China, or to any of the islands of the Archipelago, pass through one or other of these channels. English vessels—whether direct from England or from the ports of India—nearly always use the Strait of Malacca, along the shores of which are situated the British settlements of Penang, Malacca, Singapore, and the Protected Malay States. Dutch vessels, on the other hand, adopt the Strait of Sunda, which adjoins the possessions of Holland—the islands of Sumatra, Java, &c.—in this part of the globe.

CLIMATE.—The climate of the East Indian Archipelago is hot, but the generally intense heat of the Torrid Zone is here moderated by the influence of the surrounding seas. The temperature is, consequently, not so high as upon many parts of the Asiatic mainland. The air is mostly healthy, excepting in low and marshy districts. Rain falls copiously at particular seasons, and is dependent upon the change of the monsoon.

PRODUCTIONS.—The natural productions of this region are rich in the extreme.

Gold, tin, and precious stones in the mineral kingdom, with rich fruits and spices in the vegetable world, distinguish these fertile and beautiful islands of the Eastern seas. Both gold and diamonds are among the productions of Borneo. There are about 400 productive tin mines in the islands of Banca and Billiton, and other metals and minerals are known to exist. But the grains, aromatic plants, and valuable woods, with many curious vegetable productions of the different islands, are of greater commercial value.

The tree which yields guttapercha is a native of Borneo and some other of the islands. The nutmeg and the clove belong to the smaller islands of the Molaccas, or the Spice Islands, as they were, from this circumstance, formerly called. Sago is the produce of the islands in the more easterly division of the Archipelago. Sugar, tobacco, tea, coffee, and rice are also largely grown and exported.

INHABITANTS. - The entire population of the Malay Archipelago is probably not less than 40 millions. The island of Java alone has over 20 million inhabitants, and the Philippine Islands contain upwards of 7 millions.

The native races throughout the archipelago are in a state of semi-barbarism. The Malays are the ruling people, except in those islands where European supremacy is established; in most of the islands there are various Negroid or Papuan races, some of whom exhibit a very low condition of savage life. The Malays are skilful navigators and active traders. Piracy upon a scale of great extent was also formerly carried on, when their long war-cances were the terror of the archipelago. A vast number of Chinese are found settled in various parts of this region.

Commerce.-The East Indian Archipelago is the theatre of an active commerce. The English, Dutch, Americans, and Chinese are most ex-tensively engaged in this trade. Spices, guttapercha, coffee, indigo, sugar, cigars, and tortoise-shell are among the productions exported to Europe and America, and edible birds' nests and trepang to China.

Edible birds' nests and the substance called trepang are among the articles in demand among the Chinese. The former of these are the nests of a species of swallow, the material composing which is cemented by a viscous kind of substance—the produce of the bird itself; the latter (called also becke de mer or sea-slug) is a gelatinous mass of living matter, belonging to the order of radiated animals, and found adhering to the rocks in certain parts of the East Indian Archipelago. Both are articles of luxury to the Chinese epicure.

DIVISIONS.-More than three-fourths of the East Indian Archipelago belong to Holland, the rest to Spain and Great Britain, with the exception of a part of the island of Timor, which belongs to Portugal.

I. THE DUTCH EAST INDIES include all the Larger Sunda Islands (with the exception of a part of Borneo), all the Smaller Sunda Islands (except the eastern part of Timor), and the Moluccas.

The Larger Sunda Islands are Sumatra, Java, Borneo, and Celebes.

The Smaller Sunda Islands include the long chain to the eastward of Java. The largest are Bali, Lombok, Sundawa, Flores, Sumba or Sandalwood, and Timor, with North and South Timor Laut, &c.

The Moluccas or Spice Islands include the islands of Gilolo, Ternate, Ceram, Am-boyns, Buru, the Banda Islands, &c. Western New Guines is also included in the Dutch East Indies.

The total area of the Dutch East Indies is 720,000 square miles, or nearly 13 times the size of England and Wales. The population is over 30 millions, two-thirds of whom live in Java-the most populous and valuable of the Colonial possessions of Holland.

JAVA is about 50,000 square miles in area, that is, not much less than the size of England. A chain of lofty volcances runs through the whole length of the island, many of them having an elevation of over 10,000 feet. Java is probably the very finest and most interesting tropical island in the world, and undoubtedly the most fertile, the most productive, and the most populous within the Tropics.

The chief port, BATAVIA (250), is also the political capital of all the Dutch East Indies; SOERABAYA (128), and SAMARANG (72), both on the north coast of the island, are other important centres of foreign trade. SOERAKERTA is a large city in the interior.

SUMATRA has an area of nearly 150,000 square miles, which is three times the size of England. A chain of high mountains runs along its western coast, rising in *Mount Indrapura* to 12,000 feet in height. Off its south-eastern shores are the islands of **Banca** and Billiten, famous for their rich *tin mines*. The coast districts are under the rule of the Dutch. PADANG, the capital, and BENCOOLEN, the chief port, are both on the western coast. There are also several Native States, one of the principal of which is **Acheen**, near its northern extremity.

BORNEO, the fourth largest island in the world, is about 800 miles in length, and 600 miles in width, and has an area of about 280,000 square miles, or nearly five times the size of England. The interior, of which but little is known, appears to be mountainous,¹ and hundreds of large rivers and streams descend from the interior uplands, and wind through immense alluvial plains and valleys to the sea. Fully three-fifths of Borneo belong to the Dutch, whose authority, however, scarcely extends beyond the coast districts, which are governed by the Dutch Residents at BANJARMASSIN on the south coast, and at PONTANAK on the west coast.

CELEBES, which has an *area* of 72,000 square miles (about 10 times the size of Wales), is an irregular "starfish-shaped" island, with four mountainous peninsulas. The island is politically divided into two *Residencies*, Macassar and Menado, of which that of Macassar, in the southern peninsula, is the most important. The town of MACASSAR or Mangkassar, is the centre of the trade of Celebes, which is carried on chiefly with Java and Singapore.

The MOLUCCAS, or Spice Islands, lie to the eastward of Celebes. The largest islands in the Molucca group are Gilolo, Ceram, and Buru, but the most noted is the small island of Amboyna, which is the seat of extensive commerce in cloves and other spices. The Banda Islands are famous for their nutmeg trees, but they are subject to destructive earthquakes and volcanic eruptions.

The **Smaller Sunda Islands**—Bali, Lombok, Sumbawa, Flores, Sandalwood, and Timor—are, like the larger islands, mountainous and volcanic, but they are deficient in verdure, and often absolutely barren. Only the western part of Timor belongs to the Dutch—the eastern half is still retained by Portugal.

DUTCH NEW GUINEA includes the whole of the main island west of 141° E. long., with the adjacent *Frederick Henry Island*, the *Aru*, and *Ki Islands* off the south-west coast, and *Jappen* and other islands at the mouth of Geelvink Bay on the north.

II. BRITISH EAST INDIES.—The richest portion of Borneo and the little island of Labuan belong to Great Britain. Labuan is a *Crown Colony*, and the territory of the British North Borneo Company, and the Sultanate of Brunei, and the province of Sarawak, are *British Protectorates*.

LABUAN has an area of 30 square miles, and a population of about 6,000, mostly Malays, with some Chinese traders and a few Europeans. The annual production of coal is now only about 8,000 tons. The capital, Victoria, has a splendid harbour.

BRITISH NORTH BORNEO includes the northern part of the island, and has an area of 31,000 square miles, a coast-line of nearly 1,000 miles, and a population of about 175,000. The Company's territory, which has been placed under British protection, is described as a magnificent country, possessing the only good harbours in the whole of Borneo, with a salubrious climate, and forming, in a mineral and agricultural point of view, the richest portion of Borneo. **Sandakan** (7), the capital, on the north coast of the island, has an excellent natural harbour.

1. Mount Kinabalu, in British North Borneo, is 13,700 feet in height.

BRUNEI, or Borneo, is a Native State under British Protection, on the north-west coast of Borneo. The capital, Brunei (15), is situated at the mouth of a navigable river.

SARAWAK is a large territory, also under British Protection, to the southwest of Brunei, with an area of fully 45,000 square miles, but the population scarcely numbers 300,000. It was acquired from the Sultan of Brunei by the late Sir James Brooke in 1841, and the present Rajah is his nephew. The capital is Ku-Ching (Sarawak), a busy port on the extreme south-western coast.

III.—THE SPANISH EAST INDIES include the Philippine Islands and the Sulu Archipelago.

The PHILIPPINE ISLANDS¹ form the most northerly portion of the East Indian Archipelago, and constitute one of the most important possessions of Spain. The largest island of the group is **Luson**, which is nearly equal to England and Wales in point of size. Mindanao is next in magnitude. There are, altogether, over 1,000 islands and islets. The total area is over 114,000 square miles (more than twice the size of England), and the population about 7 millions.

All the islands of the Philippine group are mountainous; they also contain numerous rivers, and are throughout well watered, fartile, and productive. *Tobacco, sugar*, and rice are largely grown and exported. The chief city, **MANILIA** (270), situated on the western coast of Luzon, is the seat of an extensive trade in hemp, sugar, coffee, tobacco, and cigars.

The SULU ARCHIPELAGO includes all the islands lying between Mindanao and Borneo, and the native Sultan is under the "protection" of the Spanish Governor-General at Manilla.

JAPAN.

JAPAN, the "Britain" of the Pacific, is situated to the eastward of the Asiatic continent, from which it is separated by the Sea of Japan. This ancient Empire consists of an extensive chain of islands, the largest of which is **Nippon**³ or *Honsiu*. Kiusiu and Sikoku, to the south of Nippon, and Yezo, to the north of that island, are the other principal islands. The Kuriles or Tsi-Sima, the Loo-Choo or Liukiu, and the Bonin Islands also belong to Japan. The total area of the Japanese Empire is 147,500 square miles—about 3 times the size of England.

COASTS.—Of great extent and indented with magnificent natural harbours, such as the **Bay of Tokio** and the **Gulf of Osaka**.

Of the various straits and channels the principal are :--La Perouse Strait, between Yezo and Saghalien; Tsugaru or Sangar Strait, between Yezo and Nippon; and the Strait of Corea, between Kiusiu and the Corean coast. The famous Inland Sea of Japan, a wondrously beautiful channel between Nippon and the islands of Sikoku and Kiusiu, communicates on the east with the Pacific by two openings-the Bungo Channel and the Kino Channel-and with the Strait of Corea on the west by a narrow opening.

NATURAL FEATURES.—All the islands are mountainous ; the principal ranges in each extend generally parallel to the eastern coasts. Several of the higher mountains are volcanoes. Fertile plains and

^{1.} The Philippine Islands were discovered in 2. The name Nippon means the "Iand of the 1821 by Magailan, who was killed by the natives Sunrise," Kinziu "the nine Provinces," and on the island of Zebs.

valleys, watered by numerous rivers, extend between the mountains and the sea

The general height of the Japanese mountains is from 3,000 to 8,000 feet, but the extinct volcano of Fusi Yama,' about 60 miles from Tôkiô, in the island of Nippon, attains an elevation of 12,370 feet. In the centre of the same island

is the active volcano of Asama Yama. There are several other active volcanoes, and severe earthquakes are frequent.² Climate.—The climate of Japan is temperate and healthy—perhaps not differing materially from that of Great Britain, except in its greater extremes of heat and cold at particular seasons.

Productions.-Among its productions are included, in the mineral kingdom of nature, gold, silver, iron, copper, and tin ; and, in the vegetable world, trees that yield valuable gums and resins, with the tea-plant and the mulberry. The last is extensively used as the food of the silkworm.

INHABITANTS.—The country bears in general the appearance of populousness, and many of the cities are of large size. The total population is now considerably over 40 millions, an average of over 270 to the square mile, about one-half the density in England.

Religion and Education.—The people are mostly *Buddhists*, but the ancient religion of the country was *Shintoism*, or sun-worship. The higher classes generally profess *Confucianism*. Elementary Education is compulsory, and both elementary and higher schools are supported by Government Grants and local rates. There are several Normal Schools for teachers, and one University.

INDUSTRIES.—The Japanese are an extremely ingenious and a most industrious people, and have within recent years made marvellous progress in civilization and in the adoption of European arts and appliances.

The industry and ingenuity of the Japanese people are displayed in the careful culture of the land, the good roads which connect the various towns and villages, their skilful manufacture of silk, cotton, porcelain, and japanned wares. The country is so mountainous that not more than one sixth of its area is available for cultivation, but the cultivable area is very productive, and rice, wheat and other cereals, cotton, tobacco, the tea-plant, and the mulberry are extensively grown. The art of covering metals with varnish (japanning) derives its popular appellation from this country. Their porcelain displays much skill, and pos-

sesses a beauty of its own peculiar kind. The internal trade of the country is mainly carried on by sea, but there are now over 1,200 miles of railway open for traffic, and about 1,000 miles projected or in course of construction. There are 5,000 miles of State roads, and 16,500 miles of provincial roads. There is also an efficient postal and telegraphic service.

The foreign trade of Japan is carried on entirely through the open ports of Yokohama, Kobé, Osaka, Nagasaki, Hakodate, and Niigata, and is chiefy with Great Britain, North America, China, and France. Value in 1890, im-ports, over 81 million yen; exports, over 55 million yen³—a total turnover of over 137 million yen, or nearly 23 millions sterling.

GOVERNMENT.—The Government of Japan, formerly an absolute despotism under feudal forms, is now a constitutional monarchy, the Emperor, a wise and enlightened ruler, having enfranchised the people and substituted constitutional government for monarchical absolutism. The First National Parliament of Japan met for the *first time* in the autumn of 1890, at Tôkiô.

1. Fusi Yama, the "sacred mountain." A Jap-	tated the Gifu district, near Lake Biwa, in Nip-
anese legend says that this mountain was sud-	pon, and was more or less felt over three-fifths
denly thrown up in the third century before our	of the country.
era.	3. The nominal value of the yes or dollar is.

2. In October, 1891, a terrible earthquake devas- | about 4s. : the actual value is 3s. 4d.

Previous to the war of 1868, the supreme power was nominally divided between the *Mikado*, or the spiritual ruler, and the *Tycoon*, or temporal ruler. Many of the feudal princes—Daimios—were virtually independent, and maintained large bodies of troops. In that year, however, the hereditary emperor overthrew the power of the Tycoon and Daimios, and became absolutely the Sovereign of the State. Under the Constitution promulgated in 1889, the Emperor exercises the whole of the Executive powers, and can declare war, make peace, and con-clude treaties. He exercises the Legislative power with the consent of the *Imperial Diet*, which consists of a House of Peers and a House of Representatives, and no law can be made without their consent.

The Revenue and Expenditure of the empire each amount to about 112 millions sterling, and there is a Public Debt of over 60 millions.

The Imperial Army, recruited by conscription, is under the supreme com-mand of the Emperor, and numbers 79,000 men on a peace footing, and 245,000 in war-time. The Japanese Navy consists of 25 war-vessels, many of which were built in England, and 25 torpedo-boats. Some of the gun-boats and other vessels have also been built in the Japanese dockyard at Yokosuka, and the fleet is now entirely officered and manned by Japanese.

DIVISIONS and TOWNS.—Japan is divided for administrative purposes into 46 Provinces or Prefectures, each under a Governor appointed by the Emperor. The largest towns are Tôkió (1,400), Osaka (476), Kloto (280), Nagoya (163), Yokohama or Kanagawa (122), and Kobé (136). There are 11 other towns with above 50,000 inhabitants, and 14 towns with a population of from 30,000 to 50,000. There are altogether 12,000 towns and nearly 60,000 villages.

The capital of Japan is **TOKIO** (1,400), formerly called Jedo or Yedo, situated on the south-eastern coast of Nippon, at the head of a fine bay. Tôkio was long supposed to be the most populous city in the world. Yokohama or Kanagawa, a modern town, several miles nearer the sea, forms its port, and has become the chief emporium of the foreign trade. Kioto, formerly called Miako, on the same island further to the west, is a large city, and, until 1869, had been the Imperial capital for over a thousand years. Osaka, south of Kioto, is, after Yokohama, the most important of the "open ports." Hakodate, and Matsumai, on the southern coast of the island of Yezo, are commercial towns of considerable importance.

QUESTIONS ON THE EAST INDIAN ARCHIPELAGO AND JAPAN.

1. Where is the East Indian Archipelago situ-ated? Which of its islands is the largest? Which second and third in point of size?

Name some of the seas and channels that divide the various islands of this region.
 What two straits form the principal chan-

What two straits form the principal chan-nels of entrance to the archipelago from the side of the Indian Ocean?
 What kind of climate has the archipelago?
 Mention some of the natural productions of this part of the globe.

of this part of the globs. 6 What mole samong the mative inhabitants) are the ruling people in the archipelago? What are their habits and occupation? 7. To what articles does the trade of the archi-pelago chiefly consist? What mations are the most active agents in this trade? 8. What portions of the East Indian Archi-yelago belong respectively to the Dutch, the Spaniards, and the English? 8. Point to the island of Borneo on the map-Idow large is this island as compared with Eng-land? What is known with respect to its natural features? features?

10. In what part of Borneo is Sarawak? Under whose rule is it? Off what part of the coast is Labuan Island? What do you know of British

North Borneo? 1. Point to Sumatra. In which part of this island are the principal Dutch settlements?

Point to Java, and say what you know con-cerning its natural features. Name the chief dity of this island.
 13. Where are the island of Celebes and the group of the Molucea? Which, among the smaller islands of the Molucea group, is most important as a seat of commerce?
 14. Where are the Phillipine Islands? Name the largest island of the group, and point out its place upon the map. What is its chief town called?

the largest island of the group, and point out its place upon the map. What is its chief town called? 15. In what part of Asia are the islands of Japan? What are the names of the largest islands of the group? 16. What proportion does their magnitude bor, as a whole, to that of England? . Describe briefly the natural features of

17. Describe minay and Japan. 18. Say what you know concerning the climate and productions of Japan. 19. Mentions some particulars respecting the industry of the Japanese people. For what branches of manufacture are they distinguished? On Under what kind of government is Japan?

20. Under what kind of government is Japan? What is the prevailing religion? 21. How is Japan divided? What city is the

21. How is onpain invition? This vary a sec-capital? 22. On what islands are the towns of Yoko-hama, Kioto, Osaka, Nagoya, Hakodate, and Matsumai? Point them out on the map.

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AFRICA.

AFRICA¹ is the south-western portion of the Old World, and is the only one of its three continents that stretches to the southward of the equator. By much the larger portion of its surface, however, falls within the northern hemisphere. Regarding it as a whole, this continent forms a vast peninsula, connected with the Asiatic continent by the Isthmus of Suez.

BOUNDARIES.—Africa is bounded on the north by the Mediterranean Sea; on the west, by the Atlantic Ocean; on the east, by the Red Sea and the Indian Ocean; on the south, by the Southern Ocean. a name which is given to the southwardly belt of water in which the Atlantic and Indian Oceans mingle.

EXTENT.—In point of size, Africa is more than three times larger than Europe, but nearly one-third smaller than the Asiatic Its area is equal to about 12,000,000 square miles. continent.

The extreme points of the continent are Cape Blanco (37° 21' north), on the north; Cape Aguihas (34° 56' south), on the south; Cape Verde (17° 40' west), on the west; and Cape Guardajus (51° 10' east), on the east. The distances between these points, that is, the greatest length and breadth of Africa, are 5,000 and 4,850 miles respectively.

COASTS.—One of the chief things to be noticed about Africa is its solid, unbroken shape, and the general regularity of its coast-line. The sea nowhere penetrates any considerable distance towards the interior, and the vast bulk of the continent is quite unaffected by Africa has therefore few gulfs or inlets of any extent. its influence.

The total length of the coast-line of Africa is estimated at 16,000 miles, or an average of 1 mile of coast to every 750 square miles. Contrasting this proportion with that of the other continents, we find that Europe has nearly four times; Australia, three and a half times; North America, twice; and Asia, one and a half times, the extent of coast-line in proportion to area as Africa.

1. Capes.—The most important capes are Bon, Blanco,⁹ Ceuta, and Spartel, on the *north*; Bojador,⁹ Blanco, Verde,⁴ Palmas, Lopez, and Frio, on the *west*; Good Hope,⁵ and Agulhas,⁶ on the *south*; and Corrientes,⁷ San Sebastian, Delgado, and Guardafui, on the east.

Cape Bon makes near approach to the island of Sicily; Cape Blanco, on the Mediterranean coast, is the most wortherly point of the African continent. There is another Cape Blanco, a famous headland, on the western side of Africa. Cape Verde is the most westerly point of Africa; Cape Guardafui is the most easterly ; and Cape Agulhas is the most southerly.

2. Inlets.—The principal inlets along the African coast are the Gulfs of Sidra and Kabes on the north; the Gulf of Guinea-a broad arm of the Atlantic-with the Bights of Benin and Biafra, Walfish Bay, and

5. Cape of Good Hope. This famous headland was discovered in 1437 by Bartholomer Diaz who named it Gobo formestice, the Cape of Tempests, atterwards changed by John III., King of Portugal, to Cabe of Bona Spyransa, the Cape of Good Hope. "Of this Cape is the vet Bank of Apulas." Off this Cape is the vet Bank of Apulas."

^{1.} The name Africa was given by the Romans to the Carthaginian territories (Tunis, &c.), and was subsequently applied to the whole conti-

Table Bay, on the west; False Bay, Mossel Bay, and Algoa Bay, on the south; the Red Sea with the Gulf of Suez, the Gulf of Aden, Sofala Bay, Delagoa Bay, and Port Natal, on the east.

The Mediterranean is common to all the three continents of the Old World, but it is more European than either Asiatic or African. By far the larger portion of its coast-line is European, and while its northwardly coasts exhibit every variety of contour, embracing numerous peninsulas and intervening channels, its southward (or African) line of coast is comparatively unbroken. The Gulfs of Sidra and Kabes are the two chief inlets on the Mediterranean portion of the African coasts. The Gulf of Sidra was called by the ancients Syrtis major, ¹ and was dreaded on account of its shallows and shifting sands. The Gulf of Kabes, further west, was the Syrtis minor of antiquity.

3. **Ohannels and Straits.**—The principal of these are the Strait of Gibraltar, between Morocco and Spain; the Mozambique Channel, between Madagascar and the mainland; and the Strait of Bab el Mandeb,^{*} leading from the Gulf of Aden into the Red Sea.

Besides these, the artificial channel leading from the Mediterranean to the Red Sea-the Suez Canal-should be noticed. This channel is not only of vast commercial importance, but practically converts the continent of Africa into an island.

4. Islands.—Compared with the adjoining continents, Africa is singularly destitute of islands, while Europe and Asia are rich in islands and archipelagoes.

The principal islands are Madeira, the Canary Islands, the Cape Verde Islands, Ascension, St. Helena, and Tristan d'Acunha, in the *Atlantic*; with Fernando Po, Prince's Island, St. Thomas, and Annobon, in the *Gulf of Guinea*. Madagascar, Bourbon or Réunion, Mauritius, the Comoro Islands, Zanzibar, and Pemba, the Seychelles, the Amirante Islands, and Socotra, are in the *Indian Ocean*.

In the Red Sea there are numerous islands which adjoin the African coast, and there are also a few in the Mediterranean. But these are small and unimportant. Madagascar is second only in size to the island of Borneo, and therefore the fifth largest island in the world.

SURFACE.—The entire continent of Africa may be regarded as a vast plateau of moderate elevation, girdled by a comparatively narrow, low-lying, and generally unhealthy coastal belt, and edged by ranges of mountains or hills. The *average elevation* of this great inland plateau declines from about 4,000 feet in the south, to less than 1,500 feet in the north. The loftiest mountains in Africa are Kilimanjaro (19,680 feet), a little to the south of the Equator; Kenia (18,000 feet), on the Equator; and **Ruwenzori** (19,000 feet), a little to the north of the Equator. There are lofty mountains also in Abyssinia, North Africa, South Africa, and elsewhere, but the various ranges and mountain groups, unlike those of the Eurasian and American continents, have little or no connection with one another.

Strictly speaking, the mountains of Africa can scarcely be arranged in systems, they must, consequently, be grouped simply according to their position on the continent.

1. In the north are the *Atlas Mountains*, extending from the Atlantic seaboard of Morocco to the coast of Tunis.

The Atlas Mountains consist of a series of ranges, generally parallel to each other, and connected by lofty uplands, but here and there divided by deep valleys and precipitous gorges. The western portion of the system—the Great

^{1.} Latin, syrile, a quicksand. 2. Bab el Mandeb, "the gate of tears."

Atlas—is the loftiest;¹ the Maritime Atlas and the Saharan Atlas, in Algeria and Tunis, average between 3,000 and 4,000 feet in height.

2. The Western Banges include the *Futa Jallon* highlands, the *Cameroons*, and the various "serras" and hill ranges which extend from the Cameroons to the Orange River.

The very name of the mythical "Mountains of Kong" has at last disappeared from all modern maps of Africa; the head waters of the three great rivers of this region—the Niger, Senegal, and Gambia—are now said to have their rise in the Futa Jallon Highlands, on the southern edge of which Mount Dare attains a height of 4,500 feet. The isolated volcanic group of the Gamaroom Mountains adjoins the coast near the head of the Bight of Biafra, and rises in Mount Albert to a height of 13,760 feet. South of the Cameroons, the western edge of the plateau is more or less distinctly marked by the ridges and ranges through which the Ogowai, the Congo, and the Cunene rivers break through from the interior uplands.

3. The Eastern Ranges include the various mountains and ranges on the uplands and along the coast from the shores of the Red Sea to the River Zambesi.

The Mountains of Abyssinia break up the surface of a lofty plateau, the eastern edge of which rises steeply from the low coast plains to a height of from 7,000 to 8,000 feet. The Alpine heights of Semen, which contain the sources of the Atbara, are the loftiest portion of the Abyssinian mountain system; their culminating point, **Ras Dashan**, attains a height of 15,160 feet, or more than 2,000 feet above the snow-line. From Mount Taranta, on the north-eastern edge of the plateau, a chain of minor elevations runs along the western shore of the Red Sea, rising in the **Emerald Mountains** to a height of 9,600 feet, and finally terminating in Jebel Attaka, 2,600 feet, near the head of the Gulf of Suez.

To the south of the Abyssinian highlands, the continent also rises and expands into less elevated plateaux, from which large isolated mountain masses and lofty ranges rise, attaining in Mount Kilimanjaro, the culminating point of the continent, a height of 19,680 feet, and in Mount Kenia to over 18,000 feet. Both Kilimanjaro and Kenia are between the Victoria Nyanza and the coast; on the other side of the lake rise the long-lost "Mountains of the Moon," which Mr. Stanley has identified with the lofty Ruwenzori Range, in Uganda. The central portion of the range is covered with perpetual snow, and Mount Ruwenzori, the "Snow King," rises to a height of 19,000 feet, and Mount Gordon Bennett to 16,000 feet. Further south, between the Albert Edward Nyanza and the Alexandra Nyanza, Mount Mfumbiro rises to a height of nearly 10,000 feet.

The east-central highlands are continued southwards through the Great Lake Region, the average elevation of the uplands east of Tanganyika being over 4,000 feet, while the highest point in the Livingstone Mountains, which wall in Lake Nyassa on the north-east, attains an absolute height of not less than 11,000 feet.

4. The Southern Banges include the *Mashona* and other mountains between the Zambesi and the Limpopo; the *Randberg*, between the Limpopo and the Tugela; the *Drakensberg*, between Natal and the Orange Free State; and the *Sneeuvoberg* and *Nieuwoeld*, and other minor elevations in the Cape Colony.

The Mashona and the Matoppo Mountains diversify the upland region between the Zambesi and the Limpopo. South of the latter, the edge of the plateau is marked by the Lobombo Mountains, between the low coast-plain of Delagoa Bay and the Transval, and still further south by the Randberg

^{1.} The highest summit yet discovered appears | son estimates at about 15,500 feet above the level to be Tisim Tamjurt, which Mr. Joseph Thom. | of the sea.

(Spits Kop, 7,500 feet), in the east of the Transvaal, and the giant range of the Drakensberg, between Natal and the Orange Free State, in which Catkin Peak rises to a height of 10,870 feet.

South of the Orange River and within the limits of the Cape Colony, the mountains consist of a series of parallel ranges, rising along the edges of the characteristic terrace-plateaux of this region. First, we have a long range ex-tending along the south coast, at a distance of from 10 to 50 miles, known in the east as the Outenique Range, and further west as the Lange Berge, curving north, parallel to the coast, as the Drakenstein Berge and the Olifant Berge. The first terrace-plateau—the Kannaland Karroo and the Long Kloof -intervenes between this range and the loftier and more marked Zwarte Berge or Black Mountains, beyond which the broad upland of the Great Karroo ex-tends to the base of the main range of the system, which marks the southern border of the great South African Plateau. Its central portion, the Sneeuw-berg, rises in *Compassberg*, the culminating point of the system, to an elevation of 9,000 feet above the sea. Like other ranges which mark the outer edges of upland plains or tablelands, the sea-ward faces of the Cape mountains are steep, while on the other side the slope is comparatively gradual. The main ranges are frequently broken by narrow defiles, by which slone access from one terrace to another is possible. The higher ridges and summits are nearly everywhere flat-topped ; the most remarkable instance of this formation being Table Mountain, the culminating point of an isolated group of heights near the Cape of Good Hope.

But the great natural feature of Africa-surpassing all others in magnitude and importance-is its Great Desert, or Sahara, which stretches across the entire breadth of the continent, and is by far the largest desert in the world, as well as the most barren of such regions.

The region known as the Sahara' extends in the direction of east and west for 3,000 miles, from the shores of the Atlantic to the valley of the Nile. In the opposite direction, it is limited by the slopes of the Atlas Mountains on the north, and the basins of the Niger and Lake Chad to the southward, having a breadth which averages a thousand miles. This immense region is not uniformly barren, nor does its surface exhibit perfect uniformity of aspect.

In general, the Sahara forms a plateau of moderate elevation (averaging from 1,000 to 1,500 feet above the sea), crossed in some places by chains of hills which rise several hundred feet above its level. The surface of the wilderness exhibits, however, for the most part, a sandy or gravelly waste, furrowed at frequent intervals by the beds of water-courses, which are dry during ten months of the year. The absence of running streams is the most marked months of the year. The absence of running streams is the most marked characteristic of the desert. Springs occur at distant intervals, and, wherever they are found, an *casis*² of verdure is created.

The most sterile portion of the Sahara is its westerly division, that is, the part intermediate between Fezzan, in the south of Tripoli, and the shores of the Atlantic. Extensive tracts are there covered with dry and heated sand, raised into hillocks which shift their place under the influence of the wind. The cases are there at longer distances apart than is the case in its more eastwardly portion.

There are also some extensive deserts in Southern Africa. They consist of arid and gravelly plains, locally known as karroos. The Great Karroo is within the limits of the Cape Colony, to the south of the Orange River. The Kalahari Desert is to the north of that river.

1. That is, the Desert, which is what the Arabie word Schara means. In pronouncing this word, the accent should be laid upon the second syllable, thus, Sa-ha'ra, 3. The word case is Greek, but derived from a Coptic word, ouake, signifying "a resting-place

RIVERS and LAKES.—Africa is singularly destitute of permanently flowing rivers, but in no other continent, except North America, are there so many extensive lakes—several of them veritable inland seas of fresh water.

River-Systems.—Most of the rivers of Africa belong to two oceanic river-systems—that of the Atlantic and that of the Indian Ocean. The rest are continental rivers, and belong to the regions of inland drainage in the centre and south of the continent.

There are two remarkable regions of inland drainage in Africa, one to the north, and the other to the south of the Equator. In the former, the vast, variable, and shallow lagoon known as Lake Chad, receives the Shari from the south, and the Komadugu from the west, and occasionally overflows, by the Bahr el Ghazal, into a remarkable depression called the Bodele. The other inland drainage area referred to is that of Lake Ngami, on the northern borders of the Kalahari Desert, in South Central Africa. The Ngami receives the waters of the river Tioge, which, under the name of Cubango or Okavango, rises in the Mossamba Mountains, and in the rainy season overflows by the Zouga into a series of salt pans, and, according to Dr. Holub, occasionally into the Shasha, an affluent of the Limpopo.

The African Section of the Atlantic River-System comprises the rivers flowing into the Mediterranean, and those that enter the Atlantic directly; in other words, the rivers that drain the northern and western slopes of the African continent. Of the former, the only great river is the Nile; the latter includes the Senegal, the Niger, the Congo, and other large rivers.

West of the Nilotic delta, numberless winter torrents fall into the sea, but few of them preserve a continuous flow of water, and even the larger perennial rivers of the Barbary region are unnavigable, and almost dry in summer. Of these, the largest are the Muluya in Morocco, the Shelliff and Roumel in Algeria, and the Mejerda in Tunis. All these streams rise in the Atlas Mountains and flow, for the most part, through deep valleys and narrow defiles.

The Nile is not only the longest, but also the most important and interesting of the great rivers of Africa. It has a course of over 3,500 miles, and drains an area of over a million square miles. The Nile is, therefore, the second river of the globe in length, but only the twenty-seventh in volume, being exceeded in this respect not only by the Congo, Niger, and Zambesi, but also by such streams as the Atrato—one of the minor streams of South America—a river with a catchment-basin scarcely a hundredth part of that of the great river of North-Eastern Africa.

Both the great headwaters of the Nile, the Blue Nile and the White Nile, issue from lakes—the former from Lake Dembea, on the Abyssinian plateau; the latter from the vast expanse of the Victoria Nyanza, on the Equatorial tableland—the ultimate sources of both these branches being the main feeders of these lakes. The Bahr el Abiad or White Nile, which must be regarded as the true Nile, leaves the Victoria Nyanza at an elevation of 3,800 feet above the sea, and flows north-west, its descent being marked by the Ripon, Karuma, and Murchison Falls. It then enters the northern end of the Albert Nyanza, on leaving which it commences its grand northerly flow—as a broad and neverfailing stream—to its final outlet in the Mediterranean.

Of the rivers which flow directly into the Atlantic on the western side of Africa, the most considerable are the Senegal, Gambia, Niger, Congo, Coanza, Cunene, and Orange.

The **Senegal** rises, under the name of Bafing, in the *Futa-Jallon Highlands*, not far from the source of the Joliba or Niger. It flows first north, gradually curving west to the sea, which it enters by two mouths, between which is the island of St. Louis. The Gambia rises in the same mountain region as the Senegal, and enters the sea near Cape St. Mary. The volume of both these rivers varies according to the season. Their upper and middle courses are obstructed by numerous falls, but their lower courses are regularly navigated by French and British trading vessels and gunboats.

The great river **Niger** rises under the name of Joliba, in Mount Loma, on the borders of the *Futa-Jallon Highlands*. It is the third in length of the African rivers—its course being over 2,300 miles—and it ranks next to the Congo in the extent of its drainage area, but surpasses both the Congo and the Nile as a commercial waterway. About 250 miles from the sea, it is joined by the broad and deep **Benue**, from the mountain region south of Lake Chad; the united stream, a mile in width, then pierces the escarpment of the interior upland, and enters the plain—dividing, at a distance of about 90 miles from the sea, into numerous channels, the mouths of the most distant of which are 240 miles apart. The Delta of the Niger is much larger than that of the Nile, and is nearly everywhere covered with a dense growth of tropical vegetation. The main channel is known as the Nun, and is constantly traversed by steamers to and from the busy trading stations on the river. The Benin River is the most westerly, and the Bonny River the most easterly, of the delta branches.

The Congo is inferior to the Nile in length, but discharges into the sea a much greater volume of water, perceptible many miles out at sea. This great river has a total course of 2,900 miles, of which over 2,000 miles in all are navigable, but unfortunately the navigation is obstructed by falls and rapids. Its drainage area is estimated at 1,800,000 square miles, or one-ninth of the continent.

The Congo rises, under the name of the Chamberi, in the Urungu Mountains, south of Lake Tanganyika. The Chamberi flows west into Lake Bangveolo, and issues from it as the Luapula, with a northerly flow into Lake Moero, from which the now considerable stream, after receiving the overflow from the south-west of the Kamolondo chain of lakes by the Lualaba, passes through Lake Lanji, which receives the Lukuga from Lake Tanganyika, and pursues its course northward as the Congo. Below Nyangwe, it falls over a series of cataracts, which terminate in Stanley Falls, near the Equator. Thence it curves west and south-west, a broad and navigable stream, until, at about 140 miles from the sea, it descends to the coast-plain by the Yellala Rapids and Falls. Thence it gradually widens, and enters the sea by a broad estuary, 7 to 10 miles in width.

The Orange River is formed by the junction of the Vaal and the Nu Gariep, both of which rise on the slopes of the *Mont aux Sources*, one of the loftiest summits of the *Drakensberg Mountains*. The Orange, notwithstanding its great length (about 1,200 miles), is a mere torrent, extremely shallow in the dry season, and is altogether unnavigable, except by boats for about 30 miles above the bar at its mouth.

The African Section of the Biver-System of the Indian Ocean is vastly inferior to the Asiatic Section of the same system, both in the number and magnitude of its rivers. Although the eastern edge of the great African plateau does not approach the coast so closely as the western, still, the interior drainage, north of Lake Nyassa, flows north into the Nile, or vest into the Congo, so that the rivers flowing into the Indian Ocean have comparatively short courses.

North of the Equator, the most considerable in point of length appear to be the **Haines River**, the outlet of which is barred by sandhills, and the longer **Juba**, which rises on the southern borders of the Abyssinian highlands, and forms an excellent waterway into the interior. The most important river in British East Africa is the **Tana**, which rises in *Mount Kenia*.

South of the Equator are the Kingani, the Wami, the Rufiji, and the Rovuma. The last-named river enters the sea by a single channel, about 16

miles north of Cape Delgado, and forms the line of demarcation between the German and Portuguese possessions in East Africa.

The Zambesi, the largest river of Eastern Africa, rises under the name of the Leeba in Lake Dilolo, and, about 200 miles from its source, receives the Kabompo river (which forms the boundary between Portuguess West Africa and British Northern Zambesia) from the Mushonga Mountains, which form part of the watershed between the basins of the Congo and the Zambesi. It then turns south-east through the Barotse valley, and in long. 25° E. receives the Chobe river (which forms sits course, forming the uniquely magnificent Victoria Falls. Between the 16th parallel of latitude and the Falls, a distance of 220 miles, the channel is, according to Major Serpa Pinto, obstructed by no less than 72 cataracts and rapids. Below the Victoria Falls, the Zambesi flows with a rapid current eastwards, receiving several large tributaries both from the south and north. At TETE, where it becomes navigable, it bends south-east, and ultimately discharges its waters into the Indian Ocean by several mouths. Its Delta, which is larger than that of the Nile, is periodically inundated. About 100 miles from the sea, the Zambesi is joined by the Shiré, which drains Lake Nyaasa. The navigation of the Shiré is, unfortunately, obstructed by the Murchison Cataracts.

The only other large river of Eastern Africa is the Limpopo, which derives its head-waters from the *Witwatersrand* and other ridges on the "Hooge Veldt" of the Transvaal. Its course forms almost a semicircle; its mouth, which lies 40 miles north of Delagoa Bay, is scarcely 400 miles east of its source, while the total length of the stream is estimated at 1,300 miles.

Of the many streams which flow eastwards from the *Drakensberg* to the sea, the longest is the **Tugela**, the lower course of which forms the boundary between the colony of Natal and Zululand.

LAKES.—Africa contains some of the largest fresh-water lakes in the world, and the **Great Lakes** of the Equatorial Tableland are equalled only by the Great Lakes of North America.

The Victoria Nyanza¹ (the largest fresh-water lake in the world, with the single exception of Lake Superior), the Albert Nyanza and the Albert Edward Nyanza, all on the Equatorial plateau, with Lake Tsana or Dembea, in Abyssinia, are connected with the Nile; the overflow of Lakes Tanganyika, Bangweolo, Moero, Kassali, Lanji, Leopold II., and others, is carried off by the Congo, and that of Lake Nyassa finds an outlet by the Shirf. The chief "continental lakes" are Lake Chad, to the north of the Congo, and Lake Ngami, to the south of the Zambesi, both shallow expanses of fresh water.

The VICTORIA NYANZA, the second largest fresh-water lake in the world, is nearly as large as Scotland, and has a coast-line of fully 900 miles; it receives many large streams, the chief of which is the Kagera River, which flows from Lake Alexandra or Akenyaru, one of the ultimate sources of the Nile. The Albert Nyanza is a beautiful sheet of water, 150 miles long and 10 to 40 miles broad, bounded on either side by high mountains. Into this second great reservoir of the Nile, the Semiliki River pours the surplus waters of the Albert Edward Nyanza, which lies midway between the giant heights of Ruvenzori on the north and Mfumbiro on the south.

Of the numerous lakes connected with the Congo, Lake TANGANYIKA is by far the largest and most important. This great lake is fully 400 miles in length, but does not exceed 50 miles in breadth. Its area is 15,000 square miles, or about twice the size of Wales. For a long time this lake, although its waters are fresh, was supposed to have no outlet. It is now, however, definitely proved that the *Lukuga* carries its surplus waters to Lake Lanji, which also receives

[.] The Fictoria Nyanas was discovered by made an unexpected discovery of a considerable Speke in 1865 and the Albert Nyanas by Baker extension of the Victoria Nyanas to the southin 1864. Stanley, on his return with Emin Pasha, west.

the overflow from Lake Bangweolo or Bemba, and from Lake Moero by the Luapula, and by the Lualaba from Lake Kassali and other smaller expanses to the west and north-west of Lake Moero.

Lake Nyassa, the third great lake of Central Africa, was discovered by Livingstone in 1859. It lies to the south of Lake Tanganyika. It is about 350 miles long and has an average breadth of 38 miles, a mean depth of 600 feet, and an area of 12,000 square miles, or twice the size of Yorkshire.

The largest of the "continental lakes" of Africa is Lake CHAD, which covers not less than 50,000 square miles during seasons of flood, but is greatly con-tracted at other times, and is little more than a vast swamp. Lake Chad has no permanent outlet, but its waters are fresh, and Nachtigal states that the lake occasionally overflows—the surplus waters flowing north-east along the Bahr el Ghasal channel into a great depression called the Bodele.

Lake Ngami, the "Chad" of Southern Africa, is much smaller than its prototype in the north. It lies on the northern border of the Kalahari Desert. and is fed chiefly by the Okavango-Tioge River from the north-west, which, in the rainy season, brings down such a flood of water that it overflows by the Botletle or Zouga channel to the great salt-pans on the east.

EXAMINATION OUESTIONS.

How is Africa bounded, and what is its position with reference to the other divisions of the Old World?
 What proportion does Africa bear, in point of size, to the European and Asiatic continents?
 By what is Africa distinguished, as a whole. In respect of its shape or external contour?
 Mane some of the principal capes of Africa, and state which of them form respectively the most northern, external contour?
 E Point on the map to the following:-Cape of Good Hope, Cape Palmas, Cape Bojador, Cape Bartel, and Cape Delgado.
 What two guils cour on the Mediterranean coasts of Africa? Give their ancient as well as their modern names.

7. What gulf is on the west side of the African continent? What arms of the sea on its eastern side?

8. Name the principal islands of Africa.

9. Africa has four mountain systems. Name the principal ranges in each system.

10. State what you know of the tablelands and plains of Africa.

11. Give some account of the Sahara.

19. What is meant by the term oasies

Name the principal rivers of the African continent. Describe briefly the following rivers: —The Nike, Congo, Senegal, Niger, Zambesi.
 14. What lakes belong to Africa, and which are the largest of them?

CLIMATE.—Africa is the hottest division of the globe. This is readily accounted for, as more than three-fourths of its extent fall within the Torrid Zone, and these portions of the continent exhibit a broad and unbroken mass of land, upon which the rays of a vertical sun act with intense power. The vast expanse of the Great Desert, or the Sahara, in particular, reflects an excessive amount of heat from its arid and waterless surface. The whole of this region forms a great natural furnace, the heated atmosphere generated in which is carried by the winds over distant lands and seas, only gradually losing its heat under the influence of the larger bodies of water.

The climate of tropical Africa' is for the most part dry, but a vast quantity of rain falls at particular periods of the year. The dry and rainy seasons succeed one another with perfect regularity, and they are the only seasons by which the climate of Africa, within the tropics, is distinguished. In the desert, rain very seldom occurs, only at intervals of several years, and intense width is the persitive duration. aridity is its prevailing characteristic. But the plains of Central Africa, to the south of the desert, and also the low districts of the eastern and western coasts, have regular and abundant rains of annual recurrence.

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^{1.} The climate of tropical Africa is unhealthy tion, such as occurs at the mouths of the rivers to Europeans, from its intense heat, and still and creeks, which generate fevers. Where any more from the prevalence, within the coast or coast be elevatible
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The extreme portions of the African continent, both in the direction of north and south, fall within the Temperate Zones. The plains and valleys of the Atlas region have a climate which resembles, in all essential respects, that experienced on the opposite shores of the Mediterranean. The Cape Colony, at the other extremity of the continent, is somewhat cooler, and is less abundantly supplied with rain.

PRODUCTIONS.—The natural productions of Africa are almost as rich and even more varied than those of any other continent. The vegetation includes a large number of peculiar plants, while animals, especially hoofed animals, pachyderms, and carnivora, are more numerous than in any other part of the world. Except in the south, where *diamonds*, gold, and *copper* are plentiful, the mineral resources of Africa do not seem to be exceptionally great.

1. **PLANTS**.—A vast number of the plants native to the African continent differ in all respects from those that belong to the other divisions of the globe. It is to the south of the Sahara that the distinguishing characteristics of African botany are observed.

The vegetation which is native to Northern Africa resembles that of the opposite shores of the Mediterranean. The rich fruits of southern Europe all grow to perfection in the watered valleys of the Atlas Mountains. The fig, almond, orange, lemon, vine, mulberry, and peach thrive there, and the mountain sides are clothed with the luxuriant evergreen foliage of southern lands.

The plains that adjoin the southern base of the Atlas are the region of the **date-paim**. To this succeeds the desert, with its scanty covering of thorny shrubs and grasses—diversified by the occasional growth of palms, which distinguish every oasis in the wilderness. The desert is a vast natural barrier to the passage of the various forms of life—vegetable and animal alike—that belong to the regions by which it is limited upon either side, and the trees and plants of Central Africa are entirely distinct from those that belong to the soft the Millernean.

The forests of Central Africa, especially the great forest region traversed by Stanley, in 1889, between the Congo and the Great Lakes, include trees of vast size, most of them of species unknown in Europe. Among them are many which furnish timber of valuable quality, distinguished by the closeness of its texture and the beauty of its grain.

Some of the native plants yield articles of food, several of which are unknown in other lands. The date-paim "the bread of the desert" and the staple food for man and beast, grows abundantly in the Sahara and adjoining region. The shea, or butter tree, is so called from a kind of butter which is derived from the kernel of its nut. The baobab, or monkey-bread, is one of the most valuable boons conferred by nature upon the Negro inhabitants of the regions watered by the Senegal and the Gambia. The **oil-paim** is another of the valuable productions of the western coasts, and the **sago-paim** thrives on the eastern coast belt. The manioe, which yields a most nutritious food (*cassava* and *tapicca*) is extensively grown in tropical Africa, especially along the Guinea coast and in the Congo region. The palm-oil of commerce, now extensively used in our own country, is expressed from the nut of the oil-palm. The yam, ground-nut, and other esculent roots and highly nutritions fruits, such as the banana, are likewise among the native productions of the African soil within the Tropics. The **cotton-plant** grows wild, as also do the **sugar-cane** and the **indigo-plant**, though they have not been generally turned to much account by the native population. The highlands lying to the south of Abyssinia are the native region of the coffee-tree, but the plant is now largely cultivated in Liberia, on the west coast. Rice, maine, and wheat are very largely grown in Egypt and the Barbary countries, and maine and wheat are the chief cereals in Southern Africa, where maine (or "mealies") forms the staple food of the natives.

The extreme south of the African continent, again, constitutes a third region of vegetable life, distinct from those of the north and the centre. The country to the south of the Orange River is the native seat of such plants as the aloes and the heaths. A vast variety of plants with thick, fischy leaves, and thin wiry roots—capable of thriving in a comparatively arid soil, such as belongs to the plans of that region—abounds in the neighbourhood of the Cape of Good Hope. Some of the choicest ornaments of our greenhouses—the geranium, for example—have been originally derived thence.

2. ANIMALS.—Africa abounds more than any other of the continents in variety of animal life, and in the vast number of its mammalia; that is to say, it contains a greater number of native species (many of them peculiar to it) and exhibits also an immense numerical development of many among these species.

The regions which are marked out as the seats of distinct forms of vegetable life in the African continent are characterised by cognate differences in the animal world, though the line of division is perhaps less definite. The influence of the vast desert is, however, strikingly noticeable. The lion of Northern Africa is of a different species from that native to the southerly division of the continent. The striped hyena, which is common to North Africa with the neighbouring countries of Western Asia, is not found to the south of the desert, where the spotted hyena takes its place. The giraffe or camelopard—an animal peculiar to the African division of the globe—is native to the whole interior of Southern Africa, but is not found either to the north of the desert or within its limits. Thesebra, and other animals of the same family, are peculiar to Southern Africa; so also are the elands, and several other large members of the antelope kind.

Among the quadrupeds which are peculiar to Africa may be mentioned the hippopotanus and the rhinoceros. The former, which frequents the marshy banks of rivers and inland lakes, is found from the upper part of the Nile valley southward to the Orange River, and westward to the shores of the Atlantic Ocean; the rhinoceros is native to the plains of Central and Southern Africa. The African elephant belongs to the same wide-spread region, limited on the north by the impassable barrier of the desert. This latter tract would be almost as impassable to man as it is to the lower animals, were it not for the **camei**, which fills, in the northern half of the African continent, the same place that it does in the arid wildernesses of Western Asia.

The quadrumanous order of animals—monkeys, baboons, &c.—is numerously developed in Africa, and its various members are found through nearly the whole extent of the continent, and from the Atlas Mountains to the forests of Cape Colony. Only in the desert, again, are they absent. The forests of the western coasts, within the Tropics, give shelter to the species of apes which makes nearest approach to the human form. The **dhimpanzee** of Senegambia is surpassed in this respect by the gorilla of the Gabun River, within the woods adjoining which it was seen for the first time by Europeans.

Among birds, the **ostrich** is peculiar to Africa. In the Cape Colony and the Orange Free State this "giraffe among birds" is domesticated and reared like sheep or cattle. The guinea-fowl is the only member of the gallinaceous tribe native to this continent. The sun-birds of the western coast, and the honeysuckers of the Cape of Good Hope, are distinguished by their smallness of size as well as by the brilliancy of their plumage.

The **crocodile** of the Nile valley is one of the characteristic members of African zoology in the reptile division of the animal kingdom. It belongs to other rivers within tropical Africa, as well as the Nile. Serpents, lizards, and other reptiles are sufficiently numerous in the marshy regions of the coasts, but are less common in Africa than in some other divisions of the globe. Of

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noxious insects, the **tsetse fly** and the **white ant** are perfect pests in South Central Africa, where large areas are almost covered with *ant-hills*, and as for the tsetse fly, which infests the low plains between the Zambesi and the Limpopo, it is "an insect resembling and scarcely larger than our common housefly, and its bite is fatal to horses and sometimes to cattle, though it is perfectly harmless to man or to wild animals."

MINERALS.—Little is known concerning the mineralogy of Africa, except in the south and the extreme north, and along various parts of the coast. The Atlas region has been found to include a rich variety of ores, among them iron, copper, lead, and other metals; and at the opposite extremity of the continent, the diamond fields and copper mines of the Cape Colony, and the gold fields of the Transvaal and Mashonaland, are extremely rich.

Gold-dust, derived from the beds of numerous rivers within tropical Africa, has been in all ages an article of export from this portion of the globe. Both the eastern and western coasts furnish gold, and a part of Guinea is especially distinguished as the "Gold Coast." The quantity of gold derived thence, however, in the present day is exceedingly trifling, and the precious metal is now obtained chiefly from the rich gold-fields of the Transvaal and Mashonaland. In the Transvaal the Witwatersrand Gold-field, with JOHANNEBUEMG for its centre, and the De Kaap Gold-field around BARBERTON, with smaller gold areas at Heidelberg, Zoutspansberg, and in Swaziland, are being energetically worked, principally by British mining companies. The Gold Fields of Mashonaland are also being actively opened up by the British South Africa Company.

The Diamond Fields of South Africa are the richest in the world, the "Four Mines" in Griqualand West—the Kimberley, De Beer, Dutoitspan and Bultfontein Mines—have already yielded diamonds to the value of about 50 millions sterling. There are also productive diamond mines in the Orange Free State, and from the "River Diggings" along the Vaal some of the finest gems have been obtained. But as the country becomes more settled, the diamonds and gold will be of less real value than the **iron** and **coal** which is found in both the Cape Colony and Natal.

INHABITANTS.—Africa is the native home of the Negro race, to which the great bulk of the inhabitants belong.

But in this, as in all other respects, the desert constitutes a region of division. The inhabitants of Northern Africa are Berbers, Moors, and Arabs—people of swarthy complexion, but perfectly distinct from the Negro type. The wandering inhabitants of the desert belong also to the Arab stock. It is not until the southern limit of the Sahara is passed that Negro Africa begins. This is the region known in African geography as the Sudan—i.e., the land of the blacks, or Negroland.

The dark skin, thick lips, and woolly hair of the negro are among the distinguishing features of that race. But there are numerous points of difference between the various negro nations, as there are between the various nations of the European and Asiatic continents. The inhabitants of the Nile valley, iu the present day, are chiefly of Arab race, except in its upper part, where they are mixed with native African nations.

Negro Africa includes the greater part of Africa within the Tropics. The southern part of the continent, like the extreme north, is peopled by other varieties of the human family. The **Bantu races** include the Kaffirs of Cape Colony and Natal, the Basutos, Bechwanas, Matabeles, Zulus, Swazis, &c., as well as the Waganda, Wanyoro, and other peoples of East Central Africa, all of whom differ considerably from, and are nobler specimens of humanity than, the

^{1.} The population of Africs is roughly esti- | 1890, before the British Association, the populamated at 200 millions, i.e., only about 16 inhabi- tion of Africs was estimated at 137,000,000, giving tants to the square maile. In a paper read, in a density of 11 to the square mile.

true Negro. The Hottentots, who call themselves Khoi-Khoin (men of men, Gui-Khoin (first men), and Ava-Khoin (red men), and who once ruled over all temperate South Africa, are now found only in the south-west. Still more primitive and puny races are the Bushmen of the Kalahari Desert, the Akkhas of the Welle-Makua district in the Congo State, and the Pygmies of the great Aruwimi forest.

Beligion.-The bulk of the natives in Central and Southern Africa are pagans, making a "fetish" or god of any object. Mohammedanism prevails throughout Northern Africa, and is at the present day being actively propagated in the Sudan. Christianity is professed not only by the European colonists of Algeria and Southern Africa, but also by the Copts of Egypt, and, in a corrupted form, by the Abyssinians.

DIVISIONS.—The numerous changes in the political and territorial divisions of Africa, effected during recent years, have doubtless proved somewhat confusing to the student, especially if he has not been able to correct the statements in the ordinary text-books by . reference to the most recent maps. It may therefore be of service to give a two-fold view of the present divisions of the continent.

I. NORTHERN AFRICA includes :---

- 1. The Native Kingdom of Morocco.
- 2. The French Colony of Algeria and the Protectorate of Tunis.
- 8. The Turkish Vilayet of Tripoli, including Fezzan and Barca.
- 4. Egypt, nominally a Province of the Turkish Empire, but practically a British Protectorate.

II. WESTERN AFRICA includes :---

- 1. The Spanish Saharan coast, from the borders of Morocco to Cape Blanco.
- 2. The French Colony of Senegambia, and the French Protectorate over all the native States and Kingdoms in the basin of the Senegal and the Upper Niger, and across the Sahara to the borders of Algeria.
- 8. The British Colony of the Gambia.
- 4. Portuguese Guines and the Bissagos Islands.
- The British Colony of Sierra Leone.
 The Independent Republic of Liberia.
- 7. The French Ivory Coast district.
- 8. The British Gold Coast Colony, with the formerly independent Native State of Ashanti.
- 9. The German Colony of Togoland.
- 10. The French Protectorate of Porto Novo and Dahomey, formerly the most powerful native kingdom on the Guinea Coast.
- 11. The British Colony of Lagos, with its dependency-the former native kingdom of Yoruba.
- 12. The Niger Protectorate, which includes the entire coast from the Benin River on the west, to the Rio del Rey on the east, and divided into (a) the Niger Territories, governed by the Royal Niger Company, and (δ) the **Oil Rivers District**. 18. The German Protectorate of the **Cameroons**.
- 14. The French Congo, which includes the whole region between the Cameroons and the Lower Congo, with the exception of the Corisco Bay enclave, which belongs to Spain, and the small Portu-
- consectivity of Cabinda, and the narrow coastal zone belonging to
 15. The Congo State, nominally independent, with the King of Belgium as sovereign, but practically a Belgian Crown Colony.
 16. Portuguese West Africa, or Angola, extending from the Congo on the north to the Cunene River on the south, and including the divisions of Loanda, Benguela, and Mossamedes.

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III. SOUTHERN AFRICA includes :-

- 1. British South Africa-the Cape Colony, Natal, Busutoland, the Colony and Protectorate of Bechuanaland, Zululand, Tongaland, Southern Zambesia and Swaziland (under joint British and Boer protection).
- 2. The two Boer Republics-the Orange Free State and the South African Republic (or the Transvaal).
- 3. German South-West Africa, which extends along the Cunene River on the north to the Orange River on the south, and includes Kaokoland, Damaraland, and Namagualand.
- IV. BASTERN AFRICA is divided into :--
 - 1. Portuguese East Africa, which extends along the coast on either side of the Lower Zambesi, from Delagoa Bay on the south to the Rovuma River on the north.
 - 2. German East Africa, extending from the Rovuma River on the south to the Umba River and Mount Kilimanjaro on the north, and inland to the Great Lakes.
 - 3. British East Africa (Ibea), extending from the Umba River on the south, to the Juba River on the north, and inland to the Victoria Nvanza and Upper Nile.

 - The British Protectorate of Zanzibar (Zanzibar Island and Pemba).
 Italian East Africa, which includes the Somali Coast between the Juba River and Ras Hafun, and the province of Eritrea, which includes the districts to the north and south of Massowa on the Red Sea Coast.
 - 6. The native kingdom of Abyssinia, nominally an Italian Protectorate.
 - 7. The British Protectorate of the North Somali Coast, with the island of Socotra; the French colony of Obok and Tajura Bay. 8. Nubia (part of) and the Eastern Sudan, governed, since the revolt
 - of 1884, by the Mahdi and his successor.
- V. INNER AFRICA includes :-

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- 1. The countries of the Sudan-Massina, Segu. &c., within the French sphere of influence; Sokoto and Gando, attached by treaties to the Royal Niger Company; and the independent States of Bornu, Kanem, Bagirmi, Adamawa, Wadai, and, further east, Darfur and Kordofan, which were formerly included in the Egyptian Sudan.
- 2. The Congo Free State, though its outlet and chief centres of authority and commerce are on the West Coast, is yet essentially an Inner or Central African State.
- 3. Northern Zambesia and Nyassaland, or British Central Africa, embracing the territories between the River Zambesi and Lakes Nyassa and Tanganyika.

VL INSULAR AFRICA includes :---

- 1. Madagascar and the Comoro Islands, which are French Protectorates, and Réunion or Bourbon, a French colony. 2. The British Colony of Mauritius, with its dependencies—the Sey-
- chelles and the Amirante Islands.
- 8. Socotra-a British possession, politically attached to Aden.
- 4. The British islands of St. Helena, Ascension, and Tristan d'Acunha, in the Atlantic Ocean.
- 5. The Portuguese islands of Prince's and St. Thomas. and the Spanish islands of Fernando Po and Annobon, in the Gulf of Guinea.
- 6. The Cape Verde Islands and Madeira, which belong to Portugal, and the Canary Islands, which belong to Spain.

The Territorial Divisions of Africa may be also arranged according to the European powers to which they belong, or by which they are claimed.

- I. BRITISH AFRICA includes :---
 - 1. British West Africa-the Gambia, Sierra Leone, the Gold Coast, Lagoe with Yoruba, the Niger Territories, and the Oil Rivers District.
 - British South Africa—the Cape Colony, Natal, Basutoland, Zulu-land, Tongaland, Bechuanaland, and Southern Zambesia.
 British Central Africa—Northern Zambesia and Nyassaland.

 - 4. British East Africa-Ibes, Zanzibar and Pemba, with the Northern Somali Coast.
 - 5. British Insular Africa-Mauritius, the Seychelles and Amirante Islands, Socotra, St. Helena, Ascension, and Tristan d'Acunha.
- II. FRENCH AFRICA includes :-
 - 1. The Colony of Algeria and the Protectorate of Tunis in North Africa.
 - 2. The Colony of Senegambia with the native protected States in the basins of the Senegal, the Gambia and the Upper Niger, and the Settlements and Protectorates on the Guinea Coast in West Africa.

 - The French Congo (the Gabun, &c.).
 The Protectorates of Madagascar and the Comoro Islands.
 - 5. The Colonies of Bénnion and Obok.

III. GERMAN AFRICA includes :---

- 1. Togoland and the Cameroons on the Guinea Coast.
- 2. German South-West Africa.
- 3. German East Africa.

IV. PORTUGUESE AFRICA includes :---

- 1. Portuguese Guines, with the Bissagos Islands.
- Portuguese West Africa—Angola.
 Portuguese East Africa—Mozambique.
- 4. The islands of Madeira, Cape Verde, St. Thomas, and Prince's.
- V. SPANISH APRICA includes :--
 - 1. The Presidios-Ceuta, Tetuan, &c., in Morocco.
 - 2. The Saharan Coast and Corisco Bay.
 - 3. The islands of the Canaries, Fernando Po, and Annobon.
- VI. ITALIAN AFRICA includes :---
- 1. The Eastern Somali Coast. 2. The Province of Eritrea, on the Red Sea.
 - The Protectorate of Abyssinia and Shoa, with the Galla Country north of the 6° of North latitude and east of the 35° of East longitude.
- VII. TURKISH AFRICA includes :-
 - 1. The Vilayet of Tripoli with Barca and Fezzan.
 - 2. Egypt, nominally a Tributary State.
- VIII. DUTCH AFRICA (no political connection with Holland).
 - 1. The South African Republic or the Transvaal. 2. The Orange Free State.
- IX. BELGIAN AFRICA (not politically attached to Belgium). 1. The Congo Free State.
- X. DEPENDENT NATIVE STATES. The principal of these are :---
 - 1. Sokoto and Gando, attached to the Niger Territories.
 - 2. Dahomey, now a French Dependency.

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- 3. Lunda, attached to Portuguese West Africa.
- 4. Kasongo, attached to the Congo Free State. 5. Uganda, Unyoro, and parts of Ruanda and Karagwe, included within the sphere of British East Africa.
- 6. The rest of Ruanda and Karagwe, included in German East Africa.
- 7. Swaziland, under the joint protection of England and the Transvaal.

XI. INDEPENDENT NATIVE STATES. The most important of the "still unappropriated " native territories are :-

- 1. The Central Sudan States of Bornu and Wadai, with Kanem, Bagirmi, and Darfur.
- 2. The Eastern Sudan and Nubia, which are, however, nominally in cluded in the British Sphere of Influence.

EXAMINATION QUESTIONS.

By what is the climate of Africa distinguished?
 By what conditions are the rains distinguished?
 What portions of Africa enjoy a temperate climate, and why?
 Monthern Africa is specially distinguished as the region of the fruits that flourish in Northern Africa is specially distinguished as the region of the date-pain?
 Monthor some of the distinguishing features of Africa negative for the distinguishing features of Africa negative of the Great Desert.
 The extreme south of the African continent forms a third region of vegatable life: what class of plants form a chief part of its distinguishing relative subship features?

class of plants form a chief part of its distin-guishing features? 8. Among carnivorous animals, mention some that are found in Africa. 9. To what parts of Africa are the giraffe and sobra native? 10. Which portion of the African continent is sepscially distinguished by its abundance of animal life? What classes of animals are most unance African consistences are the him-

11. Among African quadrupeds are the hip-

poputanus, the rhinoceros, and the elephant: to what portions of Africa are they native? 12. Are animals of the quadrumanous order numerous in Africa? Which amongst them is remarkable for its near resemblance to the human figure, and where is it found? 13. What particulars do you know concerning the birds that are native to the African con-tinent? 14. Say what you know of the mineral produc-tions of Africa. 15. Of what branch of the human family is Africa the special home? By what peculiarities of appearance is this variety of mankind dis-tinguished? 16. What races of people constitute the inhabi-tant of Northern Africa? 17. Point on the map to those parts of the

tants of Northern Africa? 17. Point on the map to those parts of the African continent which are the native seat of the Negro race. By what name is this region Known in African goography? 18. What native races belong to the extreme south of the African continent? 19. Name the chief divisions of Africa, and make out a list of the British, French, German, and Portuguese African possessions.

NORTHERN AFRICA.

The BARBARY STATES,¹ in Northern Africa, extend from the Atlantic along the northern shores of the Mediterranean Sea to the confines of Egypt. They include the Empire or Sultanate of Morocco, the French Colony of Algeria, the French Protectorate of Tunis, and the Turkish Vilayet or Province of Tripoli.

The total area of these North African countries is about 880,000 square miles, or 11 times as large as Great Britain and Ireland, while the population amounts to about 12 to 15 millions.

The inhabitants of Northern Africa include the Berbers, or, as they are called in Algeria, the Kabyles, who dwell in the mountains and in the scattered villages throughout the Atlas region ; Moors, who are the inhabitants of the cities, and Arabs, who live in the more open parts of the interior, principally within their own encampments ; Negroes and Negroids from the trans-Saharan countries; and Jews, chiefly the descendants of those driven at various periods from Europe. In Algeria and Tunis there are also a great number of European settlers, chiefly French, Spaniards, Italians, and Maltese. The Berbers are

^{1.} So called from the Berbers, the original, or at any rate the earliest known, inhabitants of Northern Africa.

the descendants of the original inhabitants of this region, which is named after them. The Moors are a mixed race, sprung from unions between the natives and the Arabs and other invaders who have at various periods settled in this region.

The natives of Northern Africa are almost exclusively Mohammedans in religion. Their manners and usages, especially in Morocco, are in many respects barbarous, or indicate, at the best, but a low degree of civilisation.

Throughout Northern Africa the great features of nature are nearly uniform. The chains of the Atlas stretch through the entire length of these countries, but only attain any considerable height within Morocco.

The plains between the Atlas and the sea, and the valleys that are included within the mountain region, are the most fartile portions of the territory. The hill-sides, towards the Mediterranean and the Atlantic, are luxuriantly wooded. Their southern slopes pass gradually into the arid region of the Sahara.

This portion of the African continent has no perennial rivers of any magni-tude.¹ There are numberless winter torrents, but few of them preserve a continuous flow of water. The lakes which occur are chiefly to the south of the Atlas Mountains, and are little more than salt marshes.²

The olimate is warm and generally healthy, but the whole region is exposed, on its southern borders, to the hot winds of the adjacent Sahara. The rains are copious, but confined to particular seasons, and the soil, wherever sufficient moisture is obtained, is luxuriantly fertile.

The industries of Northern Africa are not considerable. The preparation of morocco leather (from the skin of the native goat) is a pursuit in which the inhabitants excel. The larger portion of the whole region is pastoral, sheep and goats being very numerously reared.

The grain called dhurra, or millet, is extensively grown; wheat, barley, and maize are cultivated to a less extent. In Algeria, the cultivation of the vine. cotton, tobacco, the cochineal-tree, and indigo is successfully pursued.

The productions of Northern Africa include wool, wine, cereals, alfa or esparto grass, gum, bees'-wax, dates, olive oil, and goat skins. These are exported in exchange for European manufactures.

... Northern Africa, like the countries of Western Asia, exhibits almost every-where the traces of decay from a past condition of greatness and prosperity. The chief part of the countries enumerated above was included in the empire of ancient Rome, and the frequent remains of Roman roads, temples, theatres, and aqueducts —their ruins now overgrown with the luxuriant regetation of a semi-tropical climate —bear testimony to the greatness of the Roman power. In the immediate neigh-bourhood of Tunis are the remains of Carthage—once the rival of Rome. Further to the eastward, within the province of Tripoli, are the ruins of the Greek cities which formed the ancient *Pertamolia*—the chief among them heing *Currence* or Greek which formed the ancient Pentapolis-the chief among them being Cyrene or Grennah, as it is now called.

1. MOROCCO,^{*} the most westerly of the Barbary States, extends from the Mediterranean on the north to the Sahara on the south, and from the Atlantic on the west to Algeria on the east. The Empire, which includes not only the Kingdom of Morocco and Fez to the north of the Atlas, but also the territories of Sus, Tafilet, Twat, &c. to the south of that great range, has altogether an area of about 314,000 square miles, and a population variously estimated at from 5 to 8 millions.

1. The principal are the Tensifi and Sobu, flow. Ing into the Atlantic, and the Muisya, Sociif, Roumel, and Mejerda, flowing into the Medicire ranean. 2. The two largest expanses are the Shott Medi-Same and Sobust Constraints of the Shott Jerid in Tunia proposed to Atlantic the second states, "The Same and the Same and Sobust Constraints of the Same and the second seco

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Morocco is physically divided into (1) the "*Tell*," a strip of fertile land between the coast and (2) the *Steppe-land*, embracing the main and minor ranges of the *Atlas*, south and east of which is (3) the *Desert region* of the Sahara. The coast-districts are watered by the *Muluya*, which flows into the Meditertanean, and the *Sebu* and *Tensift*, which enter the Atlantic. The southern slopes of the Atlas are drained into the *Wady Draa*, which is full only in the rainy season.

The form of government is that of an absolute despotism—the authority of the Sultan—called by his subjects 'Emir-al-Mumenin,' or 'Prince of True Believers'—being entirely unrestricted in either religious or political affairs. Many of the Berber tribes are virtually independent and acknowledge no rule but that of their own chiefs. The chief *divisions* of the country are—the kingdoms of Fez and Morocco, and the tributary territories of Sus, Dras, Tafilet, and Twat.

The chief towns of Morocco are the capitals—Morocco (50), Fez (70), and Mequines, three inland cities situated within the plain at the western foot of the Atlas. Fez is, nominally, the chief capital of the empire, but the Sultan also resides alternately at the two other Imperial cities of Morocco and Mequinez. Mogador was formerly the chief port of Morocco. Tangier (20), another port of considerable importance, is at the entrance of the Strait of Gibraltar, immediately beside Cape Spartel. Most of the foreign trade of Morocco passes through Tangier. The fortness of Ceuta, opposite Gibraltar, is occupied by the Spaniards, to whom the adjoining town of Tetuan also belongs.

2. ALGERIA, the most important of all the colonial possessions of France, extends from the Mediterranean on the north to the Sahara on the south, and is bounded on the west by Morocco, and on the east by Tunis and Tripoli. It has an *area* of about 123,000 square miles, and a *population* of about 4 millions, exclusive of wandering Bedouin tribes.

Algeria, like Morocco, is physically divided into three regions:—(1) the fertile "Tell," extending inland from the Mediterranean to the (2) bare highlands of the Atlas region, beyond which is (3) the Algerian Sahara, the western part of which forms a rocky plateau, between 1,500 and 3,000 feet high, while the eastern part is a low plain, in some places considerably below sea-level. The chief rivers are the *Roundel* and *Shelif*, both of which enter the Mediterranean. South of the mountains, the numerous periodical streams enter the *Shott Melghir*.

Only about one twenty-fifth part of Algeria is cultivated. In the inland regions south of the *Tell* the only arable tracts are the artificially formed "oases" around the Artesian wells sunk by the French. The vegetable productions of the Tell country are similar to those of Southern Europe, and much wheat and wine are now produced. The principal article of export to England is the "alfa" (or esparto grass), used for making paper. Iron, lead, and copper are also largely exported. The total imports amount to about 9 millions sterling and the exports to about 8 millions a year. About three-fourths of the trade is with France-the direct trade with England amounts to a little over one million sterling a year.

Algeria, which is regarded more as a detached part of France than as a colony or dependency, is divided into the three departments of Oran in the west, Algiers in the centre, and Constantine in the east. Each district is subdivided into a Civil Department and a Military District. The whole colony was under strict military rule until 1871, when a civil government was estab-lished in the Tell country and in the settled inland districts.¹

The chief towns of Algeria are Algiers, Oran, Bona and Constantine. ALGIERS² (75), the capital of Algeria, rises in the form of an amphitheatre along the slope of a steep hill on the Mediterranean coast. A railway connects Algiers with the port of **Oran** (70), 220 miles to the west, and with that of Bona (30), 250 miles to the east. The railway to Bona is a branch from the main line which passes through **Constantine** (45), a strongly fortified town in the interior.

3. TUNIS is bounded on the north and east by the Mediterranean. on the west by Algeria, and on the south by Tripoli. Its average width, from east to west, is about 100 miles, and its area' about 45,000 square miles. Its inhabitants, who are mainly Kabyles or Berbers and Bedouin Arabs, number about 11 millions.

Tunis is physically a continuation of Algeria-the "Tell" of the coast being similarly succeeded by the central highlands and the desert region beyond. The Mejerda rises in Algeria, but the greater part of its course is within Tunis. South of the mountain region is the Shott Jerid, a vast salt lake or swamp, whose surface is several feet below the level of the Mediterranean.

In proportion to its extent, Tunis possesses considerably more arable land than Algeria, and wheat, olive oil, and barley are largely exported. There are also considerable native manufactures (silk and woollen stuffs, pottery, leather, Areo considerable hard of manufactures (and and worked statis, or esparto grass, the best possible substitute for rags in the manufacture of paper. Most of the foreign trade of the country passes through **TUNIS**, the capital, which is con-nected by rail with its port of **Goletta**. Tunis has a population of 145,000 (of whom 30,000 are Jews), and possesses considerable manufactures of silks and woollen stuffs. Thirteen miles north-east of Tunis is the site of the ancient city of Carthage. Kairwan, 80 miles south of Tunis, is the ecclesiastical capital of Tunis, and has a magnificent mosque; it was anciently the capital of the Arabian empire in North Africa.* Biserta is an important port on the north The total foreign trade averages 21 millions sterling. coast.

Until 1860, when the Bey granted a constitution, the form of government was a pure despotism. From 1575, the rulers of Tunis acknowledged the suze-rainty of the Sultan of Turkey, but, in 1871, the Bey ceased to pay tribute to the Porte, and was made virtually independent. In March, 1881, French troops crossed the border ostensibly to punish the *Kroumirs* for their raids into Algeria. The ulterior object of the expedition, however, was the establishment of French supremacy in Tunis, and, in 1881-2, the Regency was placed under the protec-

I. The French declared war against the Bey of Algiers in 1880, and in July the same year Algiers was bombarded and taken. Two years later Bong was occupied. But the Arab tribes of Oran, under the brave Abd el-Kader, now reso-lutely contested the advance of the French, and it was not until his capture in 1847 that the Tell country was subdeed. The Kabyles of the in-terior highlands representedly revoluted, and kenn there in the the appression of the Insur-

rection of 1870-71, a civil administration was granted to the coast provinces. 8. Bombarded by the English under Lord Ex-mouth in 1816. Taken by the French in 1830. Now much frequented as a winter health-resort. 8. Including that portion of the Sahara which is to the south of the Guid of Kabes, and extends towards Ghadames. 4. In the 10th ceitry, Tunis had 17,000,000 in-habitats, but in 1750 only about 8,000,000. 6. Kairwan wasfounded by the Arabs in 2. 6. 670.

TRIPOLI.

tion of France, and its affairs are now practically administered by the French Foreign Office, through the French Resident stationed at the capital. The French army of occupation numbers 10.000 men.

4. TRIPOLI¹ is the most easterly and the least favoured of the Barbary States, and, politically, includes the adjoining territories of Fezzan and Barca. Although it has an area of half a million square miles.^{*} the greater part of it is an absolutely barren desert.

The population of Tripoli is roughly estimated at 1,000,000, and consists mainly of **Berbers**, **Arabs**, and **Tibbus**. The only inhabited parts of Tripoli Proper are a narrow strip along the coast and the fertile valleys on the north-ern slopes of the *Gharian* and the *Black Mountains*. The productions include various kinds of grains and fruits, tobacco, cotton, &c. Most of the products, not only of Tripoli itself, but also of the Sudan, are exported from the capital, TRIPOLI, on the Mediterranean coast.

The large territory of FEZZAN³ lies to the southward of Tripoli, and comprehends an area of considerable extent, which, though devoid of perennial streams, yet constitutes a kind of oasis, and is fertile by comparison with the desert region by which it is bounded on all sides, except the north. The chief town of Fezzan is called **Murzuk**. The principal commercial intercourse between Central Africa and the shores of the Mediterranean passes through Fezzan by way of Murzuk, which is on the direct line of communication between the city of Tripoli and the borders of Lake Chad.

BARCA,4 the ancient Cyrenaica, lies to the east of Tripoli. Barca is a rocky plateau, of an average elevation of 1,500 feet. Its steep seaward slopes include many well-watered and fertile valleys. Benghazi (the ancient Berenice). the capital, is the second port of the province.

Tripoli has, since 1835, formed a *vilayet* or province of the Ottoman Empire; the Turkish governor resides at the town of **TRIPOLI** (30). Fezzan is ruled by a subordinate governor residing at Murzuk. From 1869 to 1872, Barca formed a distinct province, but in the latter year it was again attached to Tripoli.

EXAMINATION QUESTIONS ON NORTHERN AFRICA.

1. What four countries are embraced within Northern Africa? 2. What constitutes the chief natural features

- What constructives the chier natural reatures of this region?
 What kind of climate has Northern Africa?
 What kind of climate has Northern Africa?
 What races of people are found among the inhabitante of this region?
 What form of religion prevails in Northern

Bina bitting of an arcs of the second
Cyrene: 9. What are the chief physical features of Morocco?

1. Tripoli or Tripolis, the "three cities;" from the three ancient towns of Sabrata, Oca, and Leptis major. The modern Tripoli occupies the site of the ancient Oca; Zoara, that of Sabrata; and Lebda, that of Leptis major. Walker of Leptis and the area of England and Walker

Wales.

Describe briefly the productions, industry, government, and chief towns of Moroco.
 To what nation does Algeria belong? De-scribe its natural features.
 What is the chief article of export to Great

Britain?

Britain? 18. Mention the chief events in the conquest of Algeria by the French. 14. Name the chief towns of Algeria. When was Algiers taken by the French? Why is it much resorted to in winter? 16. How is Tunis bounded? 17. State what you know of the invasion of 18. Whisterritorias are included in the Turk-ia, What of Tripoli? Name the capital of each. each.

3. Fezzan, the ancient *Phazania*, was con-quered by the Turks in 1842. 4. Barca was colonised from *Cyrene*, B.C. 506, and formed part of the "Libya about Cyrene"

mentioned in Acts ii., 10.

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EGYPT.

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EGYPT is the lower portion of the Nile Valley, extending from the Mediterranean up to Akashe (a small place on the Nile, 70 miles south of Wady Halfa), a direct distance of 750 miles.

EXTENT.-The area of Egypt proper is officially estimated at 394,240 square miles, or nearly seven times that of England and Wales.

The total area-including the Oases in the Libyan Desert, the northern portion of Nubia, and the Red Sea Coast to Ras Kasar, 110 miles south of Suakin, together with the Sinai Peninsula and the Land of Midian in Arabia-is not far short of 500,000 square miles, of which the cultivated and settled area covers only 18,000 square miles, the rest being a desert, affording, at most, pasturage in a few favoured localities.

NATURAL FEATURES.—Egypt has two great natural features, the river Nile and the Desert. Cultivation is limited to the lands that immediately adjoin the former, and over which its inundations reach.

1. In its course through Egypt, except for the last 120 miles, the Nile flows through a narrow valley, which is strictly limited by high chains, the third upon either side. These rocks, or rather hills (which reach in some places 1,090 feet above the valley), divide the cultivable land from the desert, which begins immediately beyond. This desert reaches in one direction to the shore of the Red Sea, and on the other side forms part of the great wilderness of Northern Africa.

2. A hundred and twenty miles above the sea the Nile divides into two branches, called respectively from the names of the towns situated near their outlets) the Rosetta and the Damietta branches. The former is the more westerly, the latter the easterly arm, of the river. The two enclose between them an extensive detta.¹ The Delta—or Lower Exppt, as that portion of the country is called—consists of a broad and watered plain, crossed by numerous channels, natural or artificial. Above the Delta, the habitable part of Expypt is limited to the immediate vallew of the vizer which selform reaches wear the is limited to the immediate valley of the river, which seldom reaches more than seven or eight miles across, between the bordering chains of hills upon either side. Egypt, therefore-in so far as its habitable portion is concerned-is a much less extensive country than it appears to be upon the map.

3. The Nile overflows its banks annually, the river beginning to rise above its ordinary level in the month of June, and continuing to rise daily until the latter end of September, at which time nearly the whole valley is laid under water.² The waters afterwards gradually retire within their proper bed, leaving behind them a fertilising deposit, to which the abundant harvests of Egypt are due. During the time of "high Nile" (as the season of inundation is called), only the rising grounds upon which the villages are mostly built are seen above the flood, and Egypt presents the appearance of a vast inland see-many of the inhabitants living in rafts upon the water. This periodical rise of the Nile is caused by the abundant rains in Abyssinia and the highland regions to the southward.

^{1.} A delta is the space enclosed between the various branches into which a river divides above its cutlet. Such tracts of country neces-sarily assume a triangular ahape, resembling the fourth letter of the Greek alphabet Δ (Delta), whence the term is derived. If was to the region enclosed between the different arms of the Nile that the term was originally applied by the

Greeks. It has become extended, in modern geography, to all similar tracts of land. The Danube, the Rhine, the Voiga, the Ganges, the Indus, the Amason, and a great number of other rivers, form deltas. The extent of these tracts of land is continually increased by the deposition of sediment where the river meets the sea. 2. The rise at Caliro is about 25 feet.

EGYPT.

Climate.-Egypt has a warm and dry climate. Except in the Delta, rain seldom occurs—in Upper Egypt only at long intervals, which are sometimes of two or three years' duration. The intense dryness of the air has been the means of preserving from decay the monuments of ancient art in which Egypt abounds.

INHABITANTS.—Egypt has upwards of 7 million inhabitants, the vast majority of which are of the Arab race, the offspring of the Arab settlers in Egypt within the period that immediately succeeded the Mohammedan conquest in the 10th century.

The Egyptian Arabs constitute the agricultural population or fellahin, as they are called. The descendants of the ancient Egyptian (or Coptic) race are about 500,000 in number. There are Turks (the ruling people), with Armenians, Syrians, Jews, and Franks or Europeans, in the towns. The foreigners in Egypt number about 100,000.

Religion.-The Egyptian people are almost uniformly followers of the Mohammedan religion, except in the case of the Copts-descendants of the ancient Egyptians—who form a Christian Church, under the Patriarch of Alexandria, who resides at Cairo.

INDUSTRY.—The industry of the Egyptian population is almost exclusively devoted to the culture of the soil. The inundations of the Nile fertilise the land, and the limits reached by the waters of the river mark the extent of cultivation.

Abundant harvests of wheat, dhurra, and other grains are raised, and cotton is grown to a considerable extent in the plains of the Delta. Flax, sugar, hemp, tobacco, coffee, saffron, mulberries, and dates all enter into the list of Egyptian agricultural produce. The cotton and surplus corn of Egypt are exported chiefly to England, and the manufactured productions of Western Europe are imported in return. The trade of Egypt, both foreign and internal, has vastly increased since the construction of the Alexandria and Suez Rail-way, which re-opened the ancient route between Egypt and India, but the transit trade over this line declined after the opening of the **Suez Canal**, which is now the great highway of communication between Europe and the East.1

Commerce.-The foreign trade of Egypt, which amounts to about 20 millions sterling a year, is carried on chiefly with Great Britain, which takes twothirds of the exports and sends nearly one-half of the imports. About 9 per cent. of the trade is carried on with Turkey, and 8 per cent. with France and Austria-Hungary.

The principal articles of export from Egypt to Great Britain are raw cotton and cotton seed, wheat, and beans, with tobacco, sugar, and rice. Nearly the whole of the foreign trade of the country passes through ALEXANDRIA though a large business is also done at PORT SAID, SUEZ, DAMIETTA, and ROSETTA.

GOVERNMENT.-Egypt is nominally a dependency of Turkey, but the Khedive, as the present ruler is styled, is virtually inde-

1. By the Convention of 1887, the canal has been neutralised, and is exempted from blockade, Vessels of all nations, whether armed or not, can pass through it in peace or war. The canal was commenced in 1859 and com-pleted in 1868. Its total length, from Port Said, on the Mediterranean (about 40 miles cast of Damietta), to Sues, at the head of the Red Sea, is 67 miles—66 miles of actual canal and 21 miles of lakes. It is sufficiently deep to allow vessels of tarwing 25 feet 7 inches of water to pass through, but vessels cannot pass each other except at the

"sidings." It is being widened sufficiently, how-ever, to obviate this inconvenience. By the use of the electric light, vessels can now pass through it by night as well as by day. The harbour at Port Said was artificially formed, and the entire cost of the canal and subsidiary works was over 20 millions sterling. In 1876, the Britiab Govern-ment bought the Khedive's shares for \$4,000,000 Nearly 4,000 vessels pass through the canal every year, and more than three-fourths of them are British.

pendent of the Porte. The government of Egypt is carried on under the direct control of England, and the country is still occupied by British troops.¹

DIVISIONS and TOWNS.-The two great administrative divisions are those of "Masr el Bahri" or Lower Egypt—the Nile Delta —and "El Saïd" or Upper Egypt, which extends southwards from the Delta to Akashe on the Nile, 70 miles south of Wady Halfa. The only two really large cities of modern Egypt are Cairo and Alexandria. The former is the capital of the country, and the latter its chief seaport.

CAIRO (368) stands on the right or eastern bank of the Nile, a short distance above the head of the Delta. It owes its origin to the Arab conquerors of Egypt, by whom it was founded in the year 970, and it is still an important centre of traffic between the East and the West, but its importance in this respect has greatly declined since the opening of the Suez Canal, previous to which the "overland route" passed from Alexandria on the Mediterranean coast, to Cairo, and thence to Suez, at the head of the Red Sea.

ALEXANDRIA (209) is a city of much older date. Its name commemorates that of Alexander the Great, by whom it was founded in the year 332 B.C. It at once became a flourishing emporium of commercial intercourse, and grew rapidly into a splendid city, and ultimately ranked only second in place among the cities of the Roman world. It was long the chief centre of Greek learning under the Ptolemies and of early Christianity in the second and third centuries. Alexandria was taken by the Mohammedans in 640, after a siege of 14 months. In modern times, the city flourished until the outbreak of the rebellion headed by Arabi Pasha, when the forts were bombarded by the British fleet, and the town was fired and pillaged by the rebel troops and Arabs. Under the British occupation it has, however, revived, and is daily becoming of greater importance as the centre of the trade of Egypt with foreign countries. Tel el Kebir, in the Delta, was the scene of the decisive defeat of Arabi Pasha by the British in 1882.

Rosetta² (18) on the western, and Damietta (34) on the eastern, mouth of the Nile, were formerly important seaports. Suez (12), on the Gulf of Suez, at the head of the Red Sea, belongs to Egypt, though it is Arabian rather than Egyptian by geographical position. It is now the southern terminus of the Suez Canal, which, crossing the isthmus of that name, connects the Mediter-ranean with the Red Sea. **Port Said** (17), on the Mediterranean, to the east of Damietta, is the northern terminus of the Suez Canal. **Siut**, in Upper Egypt, Was formerly the terminus of the Nile Valley Railway, but it is now open to **Girgeh**, and it has been proposed to continue it to Assuan, 220 miles further up the Nile. The Nile, however, is freely navigable, beyond Siut, as far as the Second Cataract, and a railway has been constructed along the right bank of the river from **Wady Halfa** to **Akashe**, 70 miles further to the south.

^{1.} Melaemet Ali, the founder of the present dynasty, after having in 1911 massacred the solute rules of the country, revolted from Turkey. The solute rules of the country, revolted from Turkey in 1950 his son, Ibrahim Pasha, invaded and conquered syria. Syria, however, was restored to the porte, but the succession to the birron of Egyptic was made hereditary. The Sultamer Media authority in the Sudau, under the title of "Khidewin Misr" or King of Egyptic and the right of concluding treaties with the succession to the bit of the difference of the country by Fride transmission to the succession to th

.. The objects regarded with most interest in Egypt are the works of a past age. The numerous antiquities that are found within the Nile valley supply an unfailing field of study to the admirer of ancient art. Amongst these monuments of bygone greatness are pyramids, tombs, temples, palaces, colossal statues, obelisks, sphinzes, and many other works.

The pyramids of Ghizeh and the ruins of Thebes are the two more special localities which possess the kind of interest here referred to. The *Pyramids* are within a few miles' distance of Cairo, on the western bank of the river, and the well-known figure of the Sphynx, of colossal magnitude, is in their neighbourhood. The *Ruins of Thebes* are in a higher part of the Nile valley, within Upper Egypt, and are spread over a vast space upon either side of the river. **Assuna** (the ancient Syene), on the right bank of the Nile, is 150 miles above the ruins of Thebes. The valley of the Nile becomes here contracted to a mere ravine, and a ledge of rock which crosses the bed of the river immediately above Assuna forms what is called the First Cataract, which, like all the socalled cataracts of the Nile, is really a mere rapid.

The Libyan Desert, to the westward of the Nile, contains several *cases*, which are regarded as forming part of Egypt. The largest of these (distinguished as the Great Oasis), is immediately west of the ruins of Thebes. The others are known as the Little Oasis, the Western Oasis, and the Oasis of Siwah. The last is the most northwardly of the number, and lies at a further distance than the others from the Nile. It contains a celebrated fountain—the supposed "Fountain of the Sun"—and the ancient temple of Jupiter Ammon, which Alexander the Great visited, was situated in this oasis.

THE EASTERN SUDAN.

The EASTERN SUDAN includes the valley of the Nile, from the Great Lakes to the Egyptian frontier, and also the territorial divisions known as Kordofan and Darfur, to the west of the Nile valley. This vast territory, which is now within the British Sphere of Influence, has an area of about 1 million square miles.

Natural Features.—The great features of this region, like those of Egypt, are the Nile Valley and the Desert. In Nubia, the two branches of the Nile the Blue Nile (Bahr el Asrek) and the White Nile (Bahr el Abiad)—unite their waters at the point where the town of Khartum is situated. The united stream is joined, some distance below, by the Atbara, which rises in the highlands of Abyssinia to the south-eastward. On the southern frontiers are the great lakes—the Victoria Nyanza and the Albert Nyanza—the perennial reservoirs of the White Nile.

The lands watered by the Blue Nile and the Atbara exhibit a diversified surface, with alternate forests and savannahs. Below the junction of the Atbara, cultivation is limited to the immediate banks of the Nile. The valley of the Nile becomes there a mere ravine, bordered on either hand by rocky ridges, as in Egypt, and of much narrower limits than in the latter country. In some places, where openings occur in the bordering mountains, the sands of the adjoining desert come close up to the river's bank.

Climate and Productions.—The climate is more tropical than that of Egypt, and the vegetation bears a great resemblance to that of the Torrid Zone, within which, indeed, nearly the entire country is situated; but by far the larger part of Nubia is an arid wilderness, and even the watered districts are tenanted principally by the wild beasts of the forest.

Groups of the acacia, the mimosa, and the date-palm mark the course of the Nile, and the sugar-cane grows wild in the neighbourhood of its banks. The senna-plant is a production of Nubia. Vast forests, among which the ebonytree and other hard woods are found, occur in the south-eastern division of the country.

Inhabitants.-This yast territory is but thinly inhabited, the total population being probably under 10 millions (an average of only 10 to the square mile), consisting chiefly of Arabs and various Negro tribes and mixed races.

Industry.—The scattered villages, which occur at intervals along the banks of the Nile in Nubia and in the more fertile tracts further south, mark the abodes of an agricultural and pastoral population. The dhurra grown in their fields, with the fruit of the *date-palm*, and *tobacco*, *cotton*, *indigo*, and various gums, are almost the sole products of Nubia and the Eastern Sudan.

Commerce.—The only commerce which the country possesses is a transit trade. The caravans, which, until the Mahdi revolt, conveyed the produce of Central Africa to the bazaars of Cairo, passed through Nubia, and the traffic in slaves then constituted the most important item in the trade carried on by the Sudanese Arabs. The most valuable article of export is *ivory*, obtained from the vast herds of elephants that roam over the magnificent " park-like " plains and savannahs of the Upper Nile.

TOWNS.-Upper Nubia contains the town of KHARTUM (70), which is the largest place in this portion of the Nile and the centre of authority for the whole country, as well as for the adjoining regions of the Sudan. Khartum stands at the junction of the White and Blue Niles, and will be for ever famous for its heroic defence by, and tragic death of, General Gordon. On the opposite side of the Nile is the fortified station of Omdurman. Sennar, also in Upper Nubia, is on the Blue Nile. Metammeh and Abu Klea, on the Nile below Khartum, are memorable as the scene of victories won by the British over the forces of the Mahdi during their advance to the relief of General Gordon. New Dongola, on the left bank of the Nile, lower down its course, is one of the most thriving of Nubian towns. The only seaport of Nubia is **SUAKIN**, a small place on the Red Sea, which is garrisoned by Egyptian troops. The caravan-route from this port across the desert, and along which arrangements had been made to lay down a railway (but which was abandoned after only a few miles had been completed), leads to **Berber**, a small place on the right bank of the Nile not far from its innotion with the Aftern FI Obid the bank of the Nile, not far from its junction with the Atbara. El Obeid, the capital of Kordofan, was the headquarters of the Mahdi, who advanced thence on Khartum. In Equatoria (Emin Pasha's Province), the chief stations are Wadelai, on the Nile, 20 miles north of the Albert Nyanza, Dufilé, and Lado.

: Previous to the revolt of the Mahdi in 1882, the whole of the Nile Basin (with the exception of the upper portions of the basins of the Blue Nile and the Atbara), from the Great Lakes of Equatorial Africa to the southern for the Bird No and the Arbara, from the Great Lakes of Equatorial Africa to the southern for the Khedive of included in the EGYPTIAN SUDAN,¹ and was subject to the Khedive of Egypt, who ruled it through a *Governor-General*, resident at Khartum.

The authority of the Khedive extended over large territories in this region, and embraced—(1) Kordofan, lying west of Upper Nubia, conquered by Mehemet All in 1821; (2) Darfur, annexed to Egypt in 1875; and (3) the Battern Sudan and the Red Sea Coast, comprising the territories west and north of Abyssinia. The annexation of the provinces north of the Abyssinian plateau was followed, in 1860, by the occu-pation of the port of Massowa and the adjoining coast-district, thus completely isolating Abyssinia and depriving it of its only outlet to the sea. South of Massowa, also, the Egyptian dominions were extended by the annexation of the Danaki iscussing Auyssinia and depriving it of its only outlet to the sea. South of Massowa, also, the Egyptian dominions were extended by the annexation of the Danaki country, between Abyssinia and the Red Sea, and by the occupation of Berbera (in 1878), Zeila and Harrar and adjoining territories (in 1876). (4) Along the Upper Nile Valley the Egyptians extended their conquests still further south, and estab-liahed military stations at Gondokoro (afterwards replaced by Lado, on the other side of the Nile), Wadelai, and other places.

The Egyptian power on the Upper Nile being overthrown by the MAHDI, a Mohammedan fanatic of Kordofan, a British expedition was sent up the Nile in 1884, for the purpose of liberating the Egyptian garrisons at Khartum and other towns invested by the Arabs. Khartum was held by Generai Gordon, who, early in 1884, had been sent out by the British Government with full powers to organize the

1. The Egyptian Sudan was divided into 12 note of the late General Gordon) an area of provinces, namely, Dongola, Khartum, Suakin, 960,000 square miles and a population of 10,400,000 Massowa, Kordofan, Darfur, Sennar, Equatorial These provinces were governed by European or Province, Fazcoli, Bahr el Ghasal, Zella, Har-Egyptian Lieutenants under a Governor-General, rar, and Berbera, and had (according to a MS) resident at Khartum.

evacuation of the country, but which he found it impossible to effect. After many flerce contests with the Arabs, the British vanguard approached Khartum in January, 1885, only to find that it had fallen into the hands of the Mahdi, and that its heroic defender had been killed and his faithful followers massared. There-upon the British Government determined to quell the insurrection at any cost, and reinforcements were sent out to open up the Suakin-Berber route, the forces under Lord Wolseley being concentrated on the Nile and remaining on the defensive. Owing, however, to the crisis in Afghanistan, and to the apparently successful rising against the Mahdi in Kordofan, the forces in the Eastern Sudan were withdrawn, an Egyptian garrison being left at SUAKIN. The southern frontier of Egypt has since been extended to AKASHE, 70 miles south of WADY HALPA, at the Second Cataract of the Nile, and Egypt still retains the Red Sea Coast for 110 miles to the Babrel Ghazal to the western borders of Abysinia. The Mahdi's successor is called, extends from Dongola in Nubia to the Albert Nyanza, and from the Babrel Ghazal to the western borders of Abysinia. The Mahdi's the south being effectively occupied (under British supervision) by Egypt, while the rest of the Red Sea littoral to the Bab el Mandeb is now included in the Italian colony of *Krittera*.

KORDOFAN lies between the Nile and Darfur. It has an area of about 100,000 square miles and a population of not more than 300.000.

For 60 years (that is, since its conquest by Mehemet Ali in 1821 until the Mahdi revolt in 1882) this country formed part of the Egyptian dominions. Kordofan was the great stronghold of Mahdism, and it was from **ELOBEID**, the capital, that the Mahdi led his fanatical followers against Khartum in 1885.

DARFUR, situated between Kordofan and Wadai, has twice the area and five times the population of Kordofan.

The capital, **EL FASHER**, is on the great caravan route from Wadai to Egypt, along which for many centuries an annual caravan conveyed *ivory* and *gum, ostrich feathers* and *slaves* to Egypt, returning thence with valuable *woven fabrics, arms,* and *metal wares.* But the Mahdi revolt stopped commercial as well as all other communications with Egypt.

ABYSSINIA.

ABYSSINIA includes the loftiest of all the plateau-lands of Africa. The country is, in fact, a succession of high tablelands, crossed by lofty mountain chains, and intercepted by deep ravines. Some of the mountains reach 15,000 feet above the sea and are covered with perpetual snow.¹

Abyssinia includes the large lake of **Dembea** (or Tzana), from which issues the **Bahr el Arrek** or *Blue Nile*. The upper course of the **Atbara**, or *Black Nile*, is also within this region. The **Hawash**, another considerable river, flows to the eastward and is lost in a salt marsh.

Climate.—The climate of Abyssinia is intensely hot in the lower grounds, but is temperate and healthy on the upland plains of the interior. At Gondar, the mean temperature is about 60° Fahr.

Productions.—The mineral resources of the country are said to be considerable, but they are as yet undeveloped. The soil is fertile, and **cotton**, **sugar**, **coffee**, &c., are produced in the lower valleys. On the higher grounds (from 5,000 to 9,000 feet) the various kinds of **grain** and **fruits** are extensively grown, while on the highest regions (up to 14,000 feet) large herds of **cattle** and **sheep** are reared.

^{1.} The culminating point is Ras Dashan (15,986 feet), in the Samen range, 70 miles north-east of Gondar.

INHABITANTS.—Abyssinia Proper is estimated to have an area of about 130,000 square miles, and a mixed¹ population of perhaps 3 or 4 millions.

Numerically, the **Hamites** predominate, but politically, the **Semites** of Tigre, Amhara, and Shoa, who emigrated from Arabia at some unknown period, are, and always have been, supreme. They call themselves *Itiopiavians* or Ethiopians, and still speak a dialect of the old Ethiopic language. They were converted to Christianity in the 4th century, and have since remained mem-bers of the Alexandrian Church. The Abuna, or head of the church, is always a Copt appointed and consecrated by the Patriarch of Alexandria, but he is not so powerful as the native head of the religious orders. The Falashas, or Abyssinian Jews, claim descent from Jews who brought the Mosaic law to the plateau long before the Christian era, but they are probably an aboriginal tribe converted at a very early date by Jewish missionaries. The secular and regular clergy instruct a limited number of children in grammar, choral singing, poetry, and the recitation of Bible texts.

GOVERNMENT.—The ancient empire of Abyssinia or Ethiopia was formerly a powerful State, governed from the earliest times by an absolute ruler, styled the Negus Negusts or "King of Kings." The country is divided into three great provinces, Tigre in the north, Amhara in the centre, and Shoa in the south, and the supreme authority has frequently shifted from one province to another.

For a time, the ruler of Shoa claimed the sovereignty of the country, but Theodore, a robber chieftain of Amhara, having seized the supreme power, was proclaimed king of Abyssinia. Theodore having arrested and imprisoned British subjects in 1863 and refused to release them, an expedition under Sir R. Napler was sent against him. The British forces landed in January, 1868, at Annesley Bay, and advanced towards the fortress of Magdala, which was at a minimized by and advanced towards the fortress of maguak, which was stormed and captured. During the assault, Theodore killed himself. Soon after the withdrawal of the British forces, Prince Kassai of Tigre claimed the throne, and, having defeated a rival chieftain, was crowned king as Johannes II. in 1872. The Khedive's troops entered Abyssinia in 1874, but were defeated, and in 1976 encounted the units. and in 1876 evacuated the country. On the death of Johannes II. in 1889, Menelek II., king of Shoa, became the supreme ruler of Abyssinia, and in May of the same year he signed a treaty by which Abyssinia virtually became an Italian Protectorate.

Of the numerous towns, few of which, however, have a population of over Of the numerous towns, new of which, however, have a population of over 5,000, the principal are GONDAR, the capital of Amhara, an ancient city on the uplands near the shores of Lake Dembes; Adowa, the capital of Tigre; the holy city of Axum, the "city of Abraham," the ancient capital of the Ethio-pian empire, and still the crowded resort of Itiopiavian priests and pilgrims; Licheh, the capital of Shoa; Ankobar, the religious metropolis and most populous city in Shoa, 8,198 feet above the sea; Debra Tabor or "Mount Tabor," a mountain fortress of the Negus, at an elevation of over 8,500 feet; Mecretel King Theodors' mountain fortress for the Negus, and the British in 1868. Magdala, King Theodore's mountain-fortress, stormed by the British in 1868; and Makellah, the present capital of the Negus.

QUESTIONS ON THE NILE COUNTRIES.

 1. What three countries are comprehended within the region watered by the Nile? Foint them out upon the map.
 2. What part of Egypt is known as the Delta? What is means by the term deita in a geographical sector of the sector of

^{1.} Hence the name of the country, Abyssinia, from the Arabic kabesh, "confusion," i.e., in reference to its mixed population.

5. What kind of climate has Egypt 6. To what race do the majority of the people of Egypt belong? What are their chief pursuits? 7. In what way is the rise of the Nile con-nected with the industrial pursuits of the Egyptian population? 6. What arkicles of produce does Egypt furnish

By provide powers. a What articles of produce does Egypt furnish to other lands? Divide a Byppt divided? Point out these divides is Byppt divided? Point out these divides is Byppt divided? Point these divides a byperiment of the second second of Egypt? Point them out on the map. 11. To what circumstance of Egypt in the present day mainly due? Describe the Suez Canal. 12. By whom was the city of Alexandria founded? In what year? 13. What locality of historic note is in the vicinity of Alexandria? 14. Where are Roesett, Damietta, Suez, Port Said, Siout, Assuna, Wady Haifa, and Aleahe? 15. What objects of interest, the works of a former age, does Egypt contain?

 What cases are included within the limits of Egypt?
 Under what government is Egypt?
 What countries are included in the Eastern Sudart ? What are its chief natural features?
 What wind of climate has the Eastern Sudart ? Name some of its vegetable productions.

tions. 20. State what you know concerning the in-habitants and commerce of this region. 21. Name the chief towns. Which of them is the capital? Foint to its place on the map. What do you know of Kordofan and Darfur? 23. How is Abyssinia situated with regard to the Eastern Sudan? By what see is it bounded

to the eastward? 23. What kind of a country is Abyssinia as to natural features?

DALUTAL FALTURE? 24. Say what you know concerning the people and productions of Abyssinia. 25. Into what three States is Abyssinia divided? Name the chief towns in each. What European Power claims a Protectorate over Abyssinia?

THE SAHARA.

The immense region of Northern Africa, to which the name Sahara—an Arabic word meaning "desert"—is applied, extends from the Atlantic to the shores of the Red Sea, a distance of over 3,500 miles, and from the southern slopes of the plateaux of Barbary and Barca and the coast of the Mediterranean in Tripoli to the grass-lands which border the fertile and well-watered countries of the Sudan.

This great desert region has an area of over 3 million square miles, and a population of not more than 3 millions of pastoral nomads and robbers.

The two great natural products of the Sahara are the **date-palm**, which furnishes the staple food of the people, and **salt**, which is extensively produced at BILMA, on the route from Tripoli to Bornu, and at TAODENI, on the route from Morocco to Timbuktu. Dates and salt, with ostrich feathers, gold dust, and slaves, are, in fact, the only commercial products of this vast region.

The commerce of the Sahara is carried on by camel-caravans which cross the desert by certain routes, the directions of which are determined by the positions' of the wells and oases. The trade consists chiefly in the transport of ostrich feathers, gold dust, and ivory to the Mediterranean ports from the Sudan-the caravans returning with cotton goods and other textile fabrics, cutlery, arms, and trinkets of all sorts. The most frequented route passes from Tripoli through Mursuk in Fezzan, and by the salt mines of Bilma (which furnish an article of considerable trade) to Kuka on Lake Chad.

THE SUDAN.

The name "Blad es Sudan," or "Country of the Blacks" of the old Arab geographers, was applied to the vast region to the south of, and almost co-extensive with, the Sahara, and the term is still used to indicate the belt of fertile and well-watered countries, which lie within the zone of tropical rains and form a startling contrast to the sterile desert, which stretches between them and the countries bordering on the Mediterranean.

In its widest application, the Sudan includes the entire region between the Sahara on the north and the Guinea Coast and the northern watershed of the Congo on the south, thus extending right across the continent, from the Atlantic on the west to the Red Sea and Abyssinia on the east, a distance of considerably over 3,000 miles.

NATURAL FEATURES.—The great natural features of the Sudan are the Senegal and the Gambia in the Western Sudan or Senegambia, the Niger and Lake Chad in the Central Sudan, and the Upper Nile and its tributaries in the Eastern Sudan.

The Senegal, the Gambia, and the Niger or Joliba, all take their rise near each other in the Futa Jalon Highlands in the Western Sudan. The Senegal and the Gambia flow westwards into the Atlantic; the Niger bends to the eastward and them flows south into the Gulf of Guinea. Unlike the other great rivers of Africa, these three rivers are navigable for considerable distances inland, unobstructed by either rapids or falls, and form, therefore, excellent channels of communication with the interior.

Lake Chad is a shallow expanse of much greater extent when the Shari and other streams which flow into it are in flood than during the dry season.

The *climate* of the Sudan is thoroughly tropical, and portions of the interior are probably among the hottest on the globe. But the inland countries of the Sudan do not appear to be unhealthy, and are at any rate free from the pestilential malaria which proves so deadly to Europeans on the coast. The rains and the season of drought succeed one another with underisting regularity, the rainy season coinciding with the position of the sun to the north of the Equator.

INHABITANTS.—The inhabitants of the Sudan are not exclusively of Negro race. A large proportion of them are of mixed descent, partly of Arab or Berber origin. The latter are known as **Fulahs** or Fellatahs, and are most numerous in the neighbourhood of Lake Chad and to the eastward of the Niger; the pure Negro race is found to the west of that river.

The Fulahs occupy a position which is politically and socially in advance of that of the pure Negro races, and have carried with them into the heart of the African continent the rites of the Mohammedan worship and the precepts of the Koran. The Negroes themselves, when not converted to Mohammedanism, are uniformly heathens, given up to a degrading *fetishism*, that is, the adoration of particular objects invested by them with a sacred character, and known as *fetishes*.

It is in the Mohammedan countries of the Sudan that the African race has reached its highest stage of development independent of European influence, and even the least advanced of these Negroid Mohammedans are not barbarians—at any rate not in the worst sense of the term. The Sudanese people, generally, have settled habits of life, they cultivate their fields, weave cotton cloth with some skill and dye it of bright colours. Many of their towns are of considerable size, and the courts of their native monarchs display various attempts at a rude kind of splendour and dignity.

The great obstacle to the advancement of the Negro has been the slave trade. The numerous divisions, into which Negro Africa has always been divided, formerly engaged in frequent warfare with one another, for the express purpose of taking captives to be sold to the slave dealer; slave-hunting expeditions are still, unhappily, fitted out by the most powerful chiefs against their weaker neighbours, the villages of the latter are burned, the children and the aged slaughtered, and the able-bodied marched in gangs across the desert, or down to the coast, to be sold into slavery. The slave-trade has always been the bane of the Negro population of Africa, and the substitution of a more legitimate commerce is, therefore, the only means of suppressing this cruel and iniquitous traffic.

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PRODUCTIONS.—The commercial productions of the Sudan are chiefly gold-dust, ivory, and ostrich feathers—besides slaves, who formerly constituted a much more important item of trade than at present.

A great deal of trade is carried on between the Sudan and the countries on the Mediterranean coast by means of **caravans** which cross the Sahara. The merchants engaged in this trade are principally Moors. Articles of European manufacture are thus introduced into the heart of the African continent.

DIVISIONS.—The three great divisions of the Sudan are :—(1) The Eastern Sudan; (2) the Central Sudan; and (3) the Western Sudan.

I. THE EASTERN SUDAN has been already described (see pp. 275-7).

II. THE CENTRAL SUDAN, a purely conventional term, is applied to the region lying to the south of the Sahara, and extending between the French or Western Sudan and the Eastern Sudan.

The **Central Sudan** is divided into a number of Mohammedan Negroid States, the limits of which are undefined, except where they are marked by natural features such as Lake Chad, the Shari, and the Niger. **Wadai** and its tributary States lie to the east of Lake Chad; **Bornu** and **Sokoto** are between Lake Chad and the Niger.

The Sultanate of WADAI, with the tributary States of Kanem and Bagirmi, occupies the entire region between Darfur and Lake Chad, and extends from the Sahara on the north to the Shari-Mobangi waterparting on the south.

The mountains, steppes, savannahs, and deserts of Wadai are occupied by some 5 millions of Arabs and Negroes. The Sultan, who resides at **ABESHE**, rules Negro and Arab alike with relentless severity. His army, about 7,000 strong, is chiefly employed in levying tribute in kind (slaves, horses, cattle, honey, corn) from the provinces and vassal States.

KANEM, a vassal State of Wadai, is on the northern side of Lake Chad. The people are allied to the Tibbus. The capital is Njimi, but the agent of the Sultan of Wadai resides at Mao, to the north-west of Njimi.

BAGIRMI, also a tributary State of Wadai, lies to the south-east of Lake Chad, and includes the low-lying plains and marshes of the Lower Shari. The handsome and warlike, but also bloodthirsty and cruel, people of Bagirmi are Mohammedan Negroes, and, prior to the capture of their capital, MASSENA, in 1871, by the Sultan of Wadai, were independent.

BORNU¹ is a lovely and fruitful country, to the west and south of Lake Chad. It has an area of perhaps 50,000 square miles, and a population of about 5 millions, chiefly Kanuri Negroes.

The **Kanuri**² Negroes of Bornu are regarded as "the most cultured people in Central Africa, and their woven fabrics, pottery, and metal ware are highly prized throughout the Sudan." Their Sultan has an army of 30,000 men partly armed with rifles, a strong force of cavalry, and even some artillery.

There are several towns with over 10,000 inhabitants in Bornu Proper and the larger tributary States, and KUKA or Kukawa, the capital of the Sultanate,

^{1.} i.e., Bar-nos, or "The Land of Nosh." | 2. i.e., "People of Light."

on the western shore of Lake Chad, has a population of from 50,000 to 60,000, and is one of the greatest markets in the Central Sudan.

The Empire of SOKOTO, which is practically a British Protectorate, is the largest and most populous of all the States of the Central Sudan, and includes all the former Haussa States between Lake Chad and the Niger, together with the tributary States of Adamawa, Gando, Borgu, Nupe, and other smaller "kingdoms" in the Niger-Benue region.

The agricultural resources of this fertile and well-watered region are considerable—rice and other cereals, dates and honey, are largely exported, and much cotton is grown, for the Haussa people are skilful in manufacturing it into durable material (which is coloured with indigo and other native dyes), and they also make excellent leather goods (shoes, sandals, harness, &c.).

The Emperor of Sokoto has conferred on the Royal Niger Company full sovereign power throughout a large part of his dominions, and complete jurisdiction —civil, criminal, and fiscal—over non-natives throughout the remainder. He governs directly but a comparatively small part of the Empire; the rest is ruled by vassal kings and chiefs who pay him an annual tribute.

Kano (35), the old Haussa capital, and still the commercial metropolis of the Central Sudan, lies about midway between Kuka, the capital of Bornu, and **Sokoto**, the former chief town of the Fulah conquerors of Haussaland. Sokoto is no longer the capital of the Empire, and its 100,000 inhabitants have dwindled to 10,000—scarcely half the population of **WURNO**, the present capital. Both towns are on the Sokoto River, an affluent of the Niger.

Gando, another large town, is on the same river, about 90 miles south of Sokoto. It is the capital of the kingdom of GANDO, which extends on both sides of the Middle Niger Valley. Niki, on the Oli River, a western affluent of the Niger, is the capital of BORGU, another vassal State of Sokoto. Borgu lies entirely to the west of the Niger, and to the south of Gando. The Oli River divides Borgu from the kingdom of NUPE, also a Native State tributary to Sokoto, on the Middle Niger.

The basin of the Upper Benue is within the kingdom of **ADAMAWA**, the last conquest of the Fulahs to the south-east. This magnificent country is bounded on the north by **Bornu**, and on the north-east by **Bagirmi**. Towards the south and south-east its limits are undefined. The capital, **Yola**, is a busy trading centre on the Upper Benue, and is regularly visited by the Royal Niger Company's steamers, which ascend the river to **Ribago**, 70 miles above Yola.

III. THE WESTERN SUDAN.—Besides the Atlantic Coast Colonies and States, the Western Sudan includes the vast region which stretches north to the Sahara and east to the Middle Niger.

Of the numerous territorial divisions in this vast and, as yet, imperfectly known region, the most important is the FRENOH SUDAN, which includes nearly the whole of the basin of the Upper Senegal and part of that of the Upper Niger or Joliba. To the east of the French Sudan are the protected kingdoms of SEGU or Bambarra (first made known by Mungo Park) and MASSINA—both countries traversed by the Joliba or Upper Niger, and inhabited by Mohammedan negroes.

The French Sudan is now governed by a Superior Commandant, resident at **EAYES** on the Senegal, whence a railway has been made along the left bank of the river as far as **Bafulabe**, and will ultimately be continued to the Niger at the town of **Bamaku**, which has been fortified. French gunboats (conveyed in sections from the Senegal) now patrol the Upper Niger as far as **Kabara**, the port of the famous city of **TIMBUKTU**, the chief emporium of traffic across the Sahara between the Sudan and the Barbary States. **Sansandig**, also on the Niger a few miles north of Segu, is a much larger and more important trading

town. Between Segu and Massina and the northern borders of Ashanti and Dahomey are several other negro States, such as those of Mossi, Gurma, Dafina, and **Tieba**, and **Dagomba** and **Kong**, further south. Little is known of these countries, but all of them are within the French "sphere of influence," which thus covers the whole of the Western Sudan with the exception of the British, Portuguese, and German Colonies and Settlements on the Senegambian and Guinea Coasts, and the Republic of Liberia.

QUESTIONS ON THE SAHARA AND THE SUDAN.

Where is the Sahara? What is the meaning

5. To what region is the name Sudan applied? 6. What are the great natural features of the Sudan?

Sudan? 7. Trace the course of the chief rivers of the Sudan on the map, and point out Lake Chad. 8. What kind of climate has the Sudan? 9. To what races do the inhabitants of the Sudan belong? 10. Who are the Fulahs? What is fetishism? What has been the great obstacle to the advance-ment of the Negro? 11. What are the chief commercial productions of the Sudan?

11. What are of the Sudan?

12. Name the three great divisions of the Sudan. 13. What States are within the Central

14. State what you know of Wadai and its

14. State wine you allow to the capital tributary states. 15. Where is Bornu? Point out its capital 18. Trace on the map the limits of the Empire of Sokoto, and point out some of the States though to be when Sokoto Kana Ganda

tributary to it. 17. Where are Wurno, Sokoto, Kano, Gando, Yola, and Ribago? 18. What region is included in the Western Sudan? What European power controls the greater portion of it. 19. What is the capital of the French Sudan? French sunhoats now patrol the Upper Niger; how were they placed there? 20. Where is Timbukta?

WESTERN AFRICA.

The western coasts of Africa, within the tropics, are a distinct natural region, extending through a range of between three and four thousand miles along the Atlantic sea-board, from the borders of the Great Desert, in a northerly direction, to Cape Frio, south of the equator. This extended range of coast exhibits a succession of low plains, backed by uplands and plateaux at some distance inland. In some places, as at Sierra Leone, the high grounds advance to the coast and meet the waters of the Atlantic.

Rivers.—All the great rivers that are found on the western side of the African continent belong to this region, with the exception of the Orange. The chief of them are the Senegal, Gambia, Rio Grande, and Niger, all to the north of the equator ; the Congo is partly, and the Coanza and the Cunene are entirely, to the south of that line. But a vast number of smaller streams, with numerous creeks and salt-water estuaries, occur throughout the entire range of coast.

Climate.-Owing to its position and to its numerous rivers and streams. Western Africa is characterised by a most redundant vegetation and an unhealthy climate. The intense heat of a tropical sun, acting on the mass of vegetable matter, occasions the malaria and deadly fevers, which are so commonly fatal to Europeans in this part of the world.

Productions.—The commercial productions of Western Africa include— besides the characteristic gold dust, ivory, and ostrich feathers—palm oil, bees'-wax, and various gums. It is from the regions of the Senegal and the Gambia, and the line of the Guinea Coast, that these latter are chiefly obtained, and the traffic in them (which is carried on by European traders, chiefly English, French, and German) has become largely extended within recent years.

Inhabitants.—The native inhabitants of Western Africa are nearly all of Negro race. Many Europeans are now settled amongst them at various points. The Negro population is divided, as in the interior of the Sudan, into numerous petty kingdoms, at frequent war with one another, and the slave-trade (though of limited prevalence now, compared with its former condition) is the great bar to progress in the arts of industry and to social improvement.

DIVISIONS: The great geographical positions of Western Africa are Senegambia, Upper Guinea, and Lower Guinea.

Senegamble is the name given to the maritime region of the Western Sudan from the Senegal to the promontory of Sierra Leone.

Upper Guines includes the coast countries from Sierra Leone to the Bight of Biafra. By Lower Guines is generally understood the coastlands extending from the head of the Bight of Biafra to Cape Frio.

The Political Divisions of Western Africa include the numerous colonies. settlements, and protectorates belonging to Great Britain, France, Portugal, Germany, and Spain, and two independent States-the Republic of Liberia and the Congo Free State.

... The following is a complete list' of the political divisions of Western Africa, named in order, from north to south :---

- 1. The French Colony of the Senegal
- 2. The British Colony of the Gambia, divided by a strip of French territory from
- 3. Portuguese Guinea, which is separated by
- 4. The French Territory of the Rivières du Sud from
- 5. The British Colony of Sierra Leone, which extends to the borders of the independent
- 6. Republic of Liberia. Then follow
- 7. The French Settlements and Protectorate of the Ivory Coast.
- 8. The British Colony of the Gold Coast,
- 9. The German Colony of Togoland,
- 10. The French Protectorate of Porto Novo and Kotonu, and
- 11. The British Colony of Lagos, all on the Slave Coast. The Protectorate of Lagos adjoins
- 12. The Niger Protectorate, which is divided into
- (1). The Niger Territories, and (2). The Oil Rivers District. British West Africa ends at the Rio del Rey, thence to the south extend 13. The German Protectorate of the Cameroons,
- 14. The French Congo, with the Spanish settlements on Corisco Bay and the Portuguese district of Cabinda,
- 15. The Congo Free State, and, lastly,
- 16. Portuguese West Africa.

1. THE SENEGAL.—The French Colony of the Senegal, or Senegambia, as it is called from its two great rivers, the Senegal and the Gambia, includes the coastlands from Cape Blanco to the borders of Sierra Leone, with the exception of Portuguese Guinea and the English settlements on the Gambia.

Inland, the French have extended their dominions over the Senegal riverain districts, and have penetrated into the basin of the Upper Niger. Dakar, on the eastern side of the Cape Verde Peninsula, is the commercial metropolis of French West Africa, but ST. LOUIS, situated on a low island in the Senegal, near its mouth, is the seat of government. KAYES, on the Upper Senegal, is the capital of the French Sudan.

2. THE GAMBIA.—The small, but important, British Crown Colony of the Gambia includes St. Mary's Island, on which is the town of BATHURST, British Combo, Albreda, the Ceded Mile, McCarthy's Island, and various other islands and territories on the banks of the Gambia.

^{1.} The student should, first of all, trace the | at the outset of their absolute and relative posi-limits and note the position of these divisions tion and extent. on a good map, so that is clear idea may be gained |

The River Gambia, which was frequented by English traders in the time of Queen Elizabeth, is navigable for vessels of 300 tons as far as the Rapids of Barraconda, a distance of 300 miles from the sea, but only the *lower river*, as far as McCarthy's Island, 180 miles above Bathurst, is regarded as British.

... The Gambia is divided from **Portuguese Guinea** by a belt of French territory which is included in the Senegal Colony, and which is traversed by the **Casamanze River**.

3. **PORTUGUESE GUINEA** includes the coast belt traversed by the Cacheo, the Geba, the Rio Grande, and the Cassini Rivers, with the adjoining Bissagos Islands.

The only settlements are Zanguichor, at the mouth of the Casamanze River; Cacheo, at the mouth of the Cacheo or San Domingo River; Bissao, on an island at the mouth of the Geba; and Bulamo, on an island at the mouth of the Rio Grande.

4. **THE RIVIERES DU SUD** is the name given to the French territory between Portuguese Guinea and Sierra Leone, and detached from the Senegal Government in 1891.

This territory consists of a narrow plain which extends between the Futa Jallon Highlands and the sea, and which is watered by the Rio Nunez, Rio Pongo, and other "Rivers of the South" (*Rivières du Sud*).

5. SIERBA LEONE.—The British Crown Colony of Sierra Leone includes the whole of the coast region between the Rivières du Sud on the north and Liberia on the south, together with the island of Sherbro, the Isles de Los, and other islands.

The coast-line is about 200 miles in length, and the Colony has a total area of about 4,000 square miles, with a *population* of perhaps 200,000. The climate is pestilential to Europeans, but the "White Man's Grave," as Sierra Leone is sometimes called, is an exquisitely beautiful country, and its undulating hills are clad in an evergreen mantle of the most luxuriant vegetation, while all kinds of tropical fruits grow in abundance on the richly fertile and well-watered soil. The trade, which amounts to about $\pounds 600,000$ a year, centres at FREE-TOWN, which is picturesquely situated on a slope of the "Sierra Leone" or *Lion Hill*, and has an excellent and strongly fortified harbour.

6. LIBERIA.—The Negro Republic of Liberia extends to the south-east of Sierra Leone for about 500 miles along the Grain Coast, and claims authority for about 200 miles inland.

Liberia was originally founded, in 1822, as a place of refuge for freed slaves. The commercial products of the republic are coffee, palm oil (the material of which almost the whole of our common scap is made), palm nuts, cocca, sugar, arrowroot, ivory, and hides, but the exports and imports combined do not exceed half-a-million a year. The capital is MONROVIA (5) near Cape Mesurado, but Harper, near Cape Palmas, has, with its suburbs, a larger population.

7. THE IVORY COAST.—The French Protectorate of the Ivory Coast extends from Liberia to the Gold Coast Colony, the actual limits being the San Pedro River on the west, and the Assinie River on the east.

Of the trading stations on the Ivory Coast, the most important are **GRAND** BASSAM and Assinie, which have been French since 1843 8. **THE GOLD COAST.**—The British Crown Colony of the Gold Coast comprises the harbourless coast between the Assinie River and the German Colony of Togoland, with a Protectorate extending inland to, and virtually including, the Native State of Ashanti.

The Colony and Protectorate have an area of about 46,000 square miles and a population of nearly 2 millions, of whom not more than 150 are Europeans.

Of the numerous forts and factories established on the Gold Coast by various European nations, since the Portuguese built the Castle of Elmina in 1481, the most important are ACCEA (20), founded by the Danes and purchased from Denmark in 1850, and now the capital and chief port of the colony; Cape Coast Castle (25), the former capital, whose great church-like fort stands close to the water's edge; Chama, near the mouth of the Prah River; Axim and Elmina, the most important of the Dutch settlements transferred to Great Britain in 1872; Adda, at the mouth of the Volta, and Quitta, further east on the coast near Cape St. Paul.

Ashanti, before the power of its merciless tyrant was crushed by the British in the sanguinary war of 1873-4, was one of the most powerful of the Negro kingdoms of Western Africa.

In this war, the capital, **Coomassie**, was burnt, and the fearful massacres by which the Ashanti king had maintained his "reign of terror" happily came to an end, and the country is now being gradually brought under British influence.

... The Slave Coast extends from the Gold Coast to the Niger, and includes the *German Protectorate* of **Togoland**; the *French Possessions* of Porto Novo and Grand Popo, between which is Whydah, the port of Dahomey; and the *British Colony* of Lagos, which adjoins the Niger Protectorato.

9. TOGOLAND.—The German Protectorate of Togoland has an area of 16,000 square miles, and a population of 500,000.

Palm oil and ivory are the chief articles of trade in this territory, which is carried on at Togo, the chief inland town, and at Lome (the chief port), Little Popo (the capital), and Porto Seguro, all on the coast.

10. **PORTO NOVO.**—The French possessions on the Slave Coast include **Porto Novo** and **Kotonu** to the east, and **Grand Popo** and **Agowe** to the west of **Whydah**—the port of the formerly independent Native State of **Dahomey**.

FORTO NOVO was taken by the French in 1862, but was abandoned and only re-occupied in 1882. Three years later, Grand Popo and Agowe on the western portion of the Dahomian coast were seized. Kotonu was obtained in 1899.

Whydah, the Ajuda of the Portuguese and formerly a great slave mart, is the port of the native kingdom of **DAHOMEY**, which is now included within the French "Sphere of Influence," and will most probably be annexed. **Abomey**, the capital, is about 70 miles north of Whydah.

11. LAGOS.—The British Crown Colony and Protectorate of Lagos include the lagoon islands of Lagos and Iddo, and the adjoining lagoon-covered coast from Kotonu on the west to the Benin River on the east. Lagos Island has an area of only 3⁴/₂ square miles—the whole Colony and Protectorate include about 1000 square miles, with a population of 100,000, only about 100 of whom are Europeans. LAGOS itself is the largest town and most important port in all West Africa. It has a mixed population of about 60,000, and is fortunate in possessing the only safe harbour along 600 miles of coast. A large trade is also carried on at Badagry to the west, and at Palma and Leckie to the east, of Lagos.

The **Ogun River** affords an easy and direct passage from Lagos to **Abbeokuta**, the well-known and populous capital of **YORUBA**, an exquisitely beautiful and remarkably fertile country, bounded on the north and east by the Lower Niger. South-east of Yoruba and extending thence to the Lower Niger and its delta, is the old kingdom of **BENIN**, now entirely within the British Sphere of Influence.

12. THE NIGER PROTECTORATE includes the entire basin of the Lower and Middle Niger, with the whole of the coast from the Benin River to the Rio del Rey, and thus adjoins the British Protectorate of Lagos on the west and the German Protectorate of the Cameroons on the east.

The River Niger and its great tributary the Benue, are the natural highways into the rich and populous countries of the Central Sudan, and the whole navigable course of both rivers is through British territory, while the enormous internal and coast trade is wholly in the hands of British merchants.

The Niger Protectorate, which has an area of 500,000 square miles and a population of perhaps 20 millions, is divided into (1) the Niger Territories, governed by the Royal Niger Company, and (2) the Oil Rivers District, at present under British Consular jurisdiction.

The Niger Territories include the whole of the Middle and Lower Niger, and are governed by the ROYAL NIGER COMPANY (under the control of the Foreign Office), in virtue of treaties concluded with the Native States and tribes (about 300 in number), including the Empire of Sokoto and the vassal kingdoms of Gando, Borgu, Nupe, &c.

The **Oil Rivers District** includes the whole of the coast-line between Lagos and the Cameroons, except that falling within the Niger Territories. The British Consular jurisdiction is chiefly exercised in the estuaries between the Benin, Brass, and the Old Calabar Rivers.

The staple products of this region—palm oil and palm kernels, vegetable butter, gums, ivory, hides, india rubber, &c.—are exchanged for cotton and woollen goods, hardware, spirits, guns, gunpowder, salt, &c., at the "factories," or trading stations, of which there are a large number on the coastal estuaries and on the Niger and its tributaries. The palm oil and other native products collected at the various factories are conveyed to Akassa, the port of entry at the Nun River (the main entrance to the Niger), where they are transhipped to the ocean steamers.

In the **Oil Rivers District**—so called from the enormous amount of *palm oil* brought down to the coast—the principal trading stations are at **Old Calabar**, **Opobo. Bonny, New Calabar, Brass, Warri, and Benin.**

13. THE CAMEROONS PROTECTORATE.— The German Protectorate of the Cameroons includes the coast region on the Bight of Biafra, between the **Rio del Rey** on the north and the Campo River on the south. The area is estimated at 130,000 square miles and the population at 2½ millions, only about 100 of whom are Europeans, most of them Germans.

A German Company, founded in 1886, has large plantations of tobacco, coffee, and cacao, and a large trade is carried on in palm oil, ivory, india-

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rubber, and other valuable products. VIOTORIA, on Ambas Bay, formerly an English missionary settlement, is the seat of government.

14. THE FRENCH CONGO.—The French Congo Protectorate includes the basins of the Gabun, Ogowal, and Kwilu rivers, and extends inland to the Congo and its tributary the Mobangi. This vast region has an area of over 250,000 square miles and a native population of perhaps 5 millions.

The Gabun is the finest estuary in West Africa. The Ogowal is 600 miles in length, has many long tributaries, and forms a large delta at its mouth. The Kwilu, or Kwilu-Niadi, a smaller river than the Ogowai, forms even a better route to Stanley Pool and the Upper Congo.

The principal settlement and seat of government is LIBREVILLE, on the estuary of the Gabun. There are several stations and fortified posts on the Ogowai, the furthest inland being Franceville. Branzeville is a small station, founded by the French explorer De Brazza, on the northern side of Stanley Pool, and almost opposite *Leopoldville*, the capital of the Upper Congo division of the Congo Free State. On the coast, about 20 miles south of the mouth of the Kwilu, is Loango, the capital of the old kingdom of Loango.

.. A few small settlements on **Corisco Bay**, with **Corisco Island**, about 40 miles north of the Gabun River, belong to *Spain*, and are politically attached to Fernando Po.

15. THE CONGO FREE STATE, founded in 1885, and of which the King of Belgium is sovereign, has an area of about 800,000 square miles and a population of between 10 and 20 millions. The State includes the greater part of the basin of the Congo, and is bounded on the west by the *French Congo* and the Portuguese territory of *Cabinda*, on the north by the *Mobangi River*, on the east by *British* and *German East Africa*, and on the south by *Zambesia* and *Portuquese West Africa*.

The great natural features of the State are the **mighty Congo and its numer**ous tributaries, which form an incomparable network of over 10,000 miles of navigable waterways.

The CONGO itself is navigable from its mouth to MATADI, a distance of 110 miles, but between Matadi and LEOPOLDVILLE, a distance of 200 miles, it flows from gorge to gorge over no less than 32 falls and numerous rapids.

Above Leopoldville, the river is navigable for 1,000 miles to Stanley Falls, and a railway, 235 miles in length, is being built, from MATADI to LEOPOLD-VILLE, to join the Upper Congo (on which there are now some 18 steamers) with the Lower Congo, which has a regular steamer service with Europe.

The principal commercial commodities of the State are ivory, india-rubber, gum copal, palm cil, ground nuts, and coffee, but there are many other sources of wealth. The annual value of the trade is under a million sterling, and about 1,000 vessels enter the ports of the State every year.

The three noteworthy places on the *Lower Congo* are **Banana**, the chief port at the mouth of the river; **BOMA**, the seat of government, on the north bank of the river, about 50 miles from the sea; and **Matadi**, on the south side, at the head of navigation and the starting point of the new railway to **Leopoldville**, on Stanley Pool, the most important of the 30 stations on the Upper Congo.

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The government of the Congo State is carried on by (1) the Central Government at Brussels, directed by the King of Belgium as sovereign of the State, and (2) the Local Government at Boma, under a Governor-General.

15. PORTUGUESE WEST AFRICA includes the maritime Province of Angola (which extends from the mouth of the Congo to the Cunene River) and the Protectorate of Lunda, and a part of the basin of the Upper Zambesi in the interior, together with the territory of Cabinda and Landana to the north of the Congo. The total area of these vast territories is fully 600,000 square miles. while the population does not exceed 31 millions.

Angola is much more prosperous than Mozambique on the other side of the continent. The trade, which consists in the export of coffee, ground nuts, continent. The trade, which consists in the export of conce, ground nuts, palm oil, india-rubber, ivory, gum-copal, akins of wild animals, &c., and in the import of cheap spirits, guns, gunpowder, &c., centres at the seaport of LOANDA or St. Paul de Loanda (16), which is also the seat of the General Government of the whole Colony. Ambriz, a small port to the north of Loanda, and the ports of Benguela and Mossamedes to the south of the capital, are the centres of considerable trade. San Salvador, now a mere negro village, was formerly the capital of the powerful kingdom of Congo, and was then a splendid city with churches, convents, colleges, and palaces.

The greater part of the feudal Empire of LUNDA (the Muata Yamvo's Kingdom), to the east of Loanda, is included in Portuguese West Africa, and is regarded as a dependency of Angola.

OUESTIONS ON WESTERN AFRICA.

1. What region is usually comprehended under the name of Western Africa? 2. Name and trace the courses of the great rivers of Western Africa. 3. What characterises the climate of Western

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Where is the French Colony of the Rivières

Where is the strengt usual, a second du Sad?
 What do you know of Sierra Leone? Why is it called "The White Marie Grave"?
 Where is Liberia? Under what form of governmentisit? When was the Sixte sounded?
 What power controls the Ivory Coast?
 Describe briefly the British Crown Colony of the Gold Coast.
 Her What do you know of Ashanti and Dahomay?

14. What do you know of Asnania and Daulo-me?? 15. Point out on the map the German Protect-orate of Togoland, and the French possessions on the Slare Coast. 16. Where is Lagos? To what European power does it belong?

17. What part of West Africa is included in the Niger Protectorate? How is the Protect-orate divided, and what is the ruling power in each of the two chief divisions of the Protect-orate?
 18. What are the staple products of the Niger region? Point out on the map the chief centeres of trade in the Niger Territories and in the Oil Proven Divided.

rection? Point out on the map the chief centres of trads in the Niger Territories and in the Oil Rivers District. 19. What are the limits of the Cameroons Pro-tectorate? What settlements is the seat of government? 20. Give a short description of the French (Congo, Which is the principal settlement in the Protectorate? 21. Spain has a few settlements and a small island on this coast. Point them out on the map 22. When was the Congo Free State founded, and who is its sovereign? 23. Trace the boundaries of the State on the map, and point out its capital and chief port. 24. What are its greet natural features? 25. Where are Banama, Boma, Matadi, and Leopoldrille? 26. How is the State governed? Who was the first governor general? 27. What region is included in Portuguese 28. Where are the following towns :-Loanda, Ambris, Benguela, Mossamedes, and San Salva-dor?

dor?

EASTERN AFRICA.

EASTERN AFRICA includes the coast lands from Delagoa Bay to the Gulf of Aden, together with the uplands to the east of the Great Lakes.

DIVISIONS.—The whole of Eastern Africa is now partitioned between four European Powers—Portugal, Germany, Great Britain, and Italy. And not only has the mainland been thus parcelled out, but the islands on or off the eastern coast are all occupied or "protected" by European Powers.

Eastern Africa is therefore politically divided into (1) Portuguese East Africa, (2) German East Africa, (3) Ibea or British East Africa, and (4) Italian East Africa. The islands of Zanzibar and Pemba form a British Protectorate ; the great island of Madagascar and the Comoro Archipelago are French Protectorates ; Réunion or Bourbon is a French Colony ; and Mauritius is a British possession, as also are the Seychelles and the Amirante Islands, and Socotra.

1. **PORTUGUESE EAST AFRICA** includes the coast province of **Mozambique** and the limited portion of **Zambesia** assigned to Portugal by the Anglo-Portuguese Convention of 1891.

The Portuguese possessions include the coast lands, 1,260 miles in length, from Delagoa Bay to the Rovuma River, and extend inland to the edge of the Manica Plateau and the shores of Lake Nyassa. This immense territory forms the Province of Mozambique, and, with its dependencies, has an area of about 200,000 square miles and a population of perhaps 1 million, consisting of negroes of Kaffir or Zulu origin and numerous half-caste Portuguese.

The principal places in Portuguese East Africa are MOZAMBIQUE (10), the capital, a busy seaport, on a coral islet close to the shore (nearly under the 15° S. lat., and thus almost exactly opposite Mossamedes on the west coast); Quilimane, the chief port, on one of the delta mouths of the Zambesi ; Beira, a small port at the mouth of the *Pungue River*, important from its position on the shortest route to the Manica Plateau and British Southern Zambesia ; Sofala, a port supposed to be the *Ophir*, whither King Solomon sent his ships for gold, &c. ; Inhambane, on the coast near Cape Corrientes, the outlet for a fertile, well-wooded district ; and Lorenzo Marques, on Delagoa Bay, the terminal port of the railway now being constructed to Pretoria, and already open for traffic to Komati Poort on the Transvaal frontier.

On the Zambesi, the only noteworthy places are Sena, on the Lower Zambesi, 140 miles from the sea; Tete, 150 miles higher up, formerly an important trading centre; and Zumbo, a Portuguese settlement near the confluence of the Loangwa with the Zambesi.

2. GERMAN EAST AFRICA extends along the coast to the north of the Rovuma Biver, and stretches westwards to Lakes Nyassa and Tanganyika, and northward to the Victoria Nyanza and Mount Kilimanjaro. The total area of this vast territory is estimated at 350,000 square miles (or one-third larger than Germany itself), but the population does not exceed 2 millions.

This vast territory is the largest and by far the most valuable of all the colonial possessions of Germany. It embraces 'high plateaux, lofty mountains, beautiful valleys, and strong rivers, where the rainy season unchains immense torrents.' The chief ports are DAR ES SALAAM, which is also the seat of government, and Bagamoyo, on the coast opposite Zanzibar, and Saadani and Pangani, further north.

3. BRITISH EAST AFRICA, or Ibea,¹ as it is also called, extends along the coast from the **Umba River** in the south, to the **Juba River** on the north—a distance of 400 miles. Inland, the British "Sphere of Influence" extends westwards beyond the **Victoria** and the **Albert Nyanzas** to the borders of the **Congo Free State**—a distance of 900 miles. On the east, the British sphere is conterminous with the Italian sphere in **Gallaland** and **Abyssinia**. There are no definite limits on the north or north-west, but the **Upper Nile Region** and the **Eastern Sudan** and **Nubia** are open to British influence, and to it alone.

Ibea, to the 6° N. latitude, has an area of some 250,000 square miles and the rest of the British Sphere of Influence to the Egyptian frontier at least 800,000 square miles—a total area of over 1 million square miles, of which, however, but a comparatively small portion in the south has been as yet effectively occupied. The population, which consists of various Negro tribes, Arabs, and Banyan or Hindu traders, for so vast a territory is small, amounting to not more than 6 millions in the southern, and to 7 or 8 millions in the northern, division of a region, which measures over 1,600 miles from north to south.

The administration and development of all the territories included within the British sphere have been entrusted to the **Imperial British East Africa Company**, incorporated by Royal Charter in 1888. The great navigable waterways of the *Tana* and the *Juba* rivers afford excellent means of communication with the populous regions through which they flow. The chief port and seat of government, **MOMBASA**, is situated on an island off the coast. It has a fine harbour, and a railway is being built from the coast to the Victoria Nyanza. **Malindi**, Lamu, and Kismayu are other important trading stations.

: The Native States of Uganda and Unyoro, between the Victoria Nyanza and the Albert Nyanza, are important links in the chain of communications between the British East Africa Company's stations on the East Coast and the rich provinces of the Upper Nile.

(1) UGANDA, the largest and most powerful of the Native States of Equatorial East Africa, includes the region on the north and north-west of the Victoria Nyanza, and, with Usoga and the vassal States on the eastern side of the Nile, has an area of 70,000 square miles and a population of perhaps 5 millions, mostly negroes of the *Bantu* race. Mruli, on the Somerset Nile, is a great market town, but Mengo, on Murchison Bay, is the capital.

The late King Mtesa was a powerful sovereign, and under his arbitrary rule the country became rich and, in some degree, civilized. His son Mwanga, by a treaty (1889) with the British East Africa Company, placed his country under British protection.

(2) UNYORO is a Native State to the west of Uganda, and includes the fertile and well-watered plateau between Uganda and the Albert Nyanza and the Semliki River.

ZANZIBAR.—The Sultanate of Zanzibar formerly included a long strip of the coast, from Cape Delgado to Kipini, and several *points* on the coast as far north as Warshelkh, besides the productive and populous islands of Zanzibar and **Pemba**, but the Sultan has now little more than a nominal sovereignty. The partition of the Zanzibar Sultanate was commenced in 1888, by the cession of the Mrima or mainland, between the Rovuma and the Umba River, to the German East Africa Company for 50 years, and a similar lease of the coast lands and ports north of the Umba to the British East Africa Company. A

1. From the initial letters of the I-mperial B-ritish E-ast A-frica Company's title.

further agreement was signed in 1890, by which Zanzibar and Pemba were placed under British protection, and the entire coast land and islands between the Umba River and the Juba were ceded to the British East Africa Company as well as the 'northern ports'—Brava, Merka, Magadoxo, and Warsheikh— which were afterwards transferred to Italy. The island of Zanzibar has an ere of 65 concerned and a set 260 concerned to the provide the set of the se area of 625 square miles, and **Femba** 360 square miles, with a population of 125,000 and 40,000 respectively. The town of **ZANXIBAB**, now a free port, has a population of 100,000, and is an active centre of trade in the products of the land and those of the adjoining mainland.

4. ITALIAN EAST AFRICA.—The Italian Possessions and Protectorates, occupied or claimed, in Eastern Africa, are the Somali Coast from the Juba River to Ras Hafun (100 miles south of Cape Guardafui, the easternmost point of the continent), and the Red Sea coast from Ras Kasar, a headland on the coast 110 miles to the south of Suakin, to the Strait of Bab el Mandeb, together with the region to the east of Abyssinia and the Juba River, with the exception of the British Protectorate on the North Somali Coast and the French colony of Obok and Tajura Bay. Abyssinia is also claimed as lying within the Italian "Sphere of Influence," which is estimated to have a total area of some 350,000 square miles, and a population of about 6 millions.

Italian East Africa includes the province of Eritrea, and the Protectorates of Gallaland and Eastern Somaliland, and also the protected Native State of Abyssinia. The best known places in Eritrea are Massowa, the chief port and seat of government, on an island which closely adjoins the coast. about midway between Suakin and the island of Perim, and Assab Bay, about 50 miles north-west of the Strait of Bab el Mandeb, and nearly opposite Mocha. Gallaland has no definite limits-the wild Galla shepherds and warriors inhabiting vast districts stretching from Lake Dembea to the Equator. Somaliland is the general name for the Eastern Horn of Africa. The Northern Somali Coast, from Tajura Bay to Cape Guardafui and south to Ras Hafun, is a British Protectorate. British authority centres at BERBERA and ZELLA. The Eastern Somali Coast, from Ras Hafun to the Juba River, forms an Italian Protectorate-the principal places in which are the ports of Brava, Merka, Magadoxo, and Warsheikh.

QUESTIONS ON EASTERN AFRICA.

1. Define the limits of Eastern Africa. How is this region divided? 2. What part of it is included in Portuguese East Africa? 3. Where are Mosambique, Quilimane, Sofala, and Inhambane? 4. Why are the ports of Beirs and Lorenso Marques likely to become important? 5. Name the chief extilement on the Zambesi. 6. What are the boundaries of German East Africa?

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7. Point out on the map the capital of, and other towns in, this territory. 8. What region is included within British East Africs? What town is the capital? Name other important trading stations. 8. State what you know of Uganda and Un-

a Diane when you are account of the Sultanate of Zansibar. 10. Give some account of the Sultanate of Zansibar. 11. What portion of Eastern Africa is occupied or claimed by Italy? Where is Massowa?

SOUTHERN AFRICA.

The southern part of the African continent includes several extensive territories under British rule, and two independent Dutch republics, together with the vast territory of German South-West A frica.

BRITISH SOUTH AFRICA.

BRITISH SOUTH AFRICA includes the great self-governing colony of the Cape-the wealthiest and most important part of all South Africa-the colony of Natal, the Crown Colonies of Basutoland, British Bechuanaland, and Zululand, and the Protectorates of Tongaland, Bechuanaland, and Zambesia.

THE CAPE COLONY.

THE CAPE COLONY,¹ which derives its distinguishing name from the Cape of Good Hope,² is bounded on the north and north-east by the Orange River, British Bechuanaland, the Orange Free State, Basutoland, and Natal: on the west, by the Atlantic: and on the south, by the Indian Ocean.

EXTENT.-The area of the Cape Colony, including the Transkeian Territories and Walfish Bay, is about 233,430 square miles, or more than 4 times that of England and Wales. The extreme length of the colony is 600 miles, and the breadth, about 450 miles.

Griqualand West, to the north of the Orange River, and the whole region south of the Orange and west of the Kei River, are included in Cape Colony Proper-the Transkeian Territories, between the Kei River and Natal-are dependencies of the Cape Colony, as also is the district of Walfish Bay, along with several small islands, on the West Coast.

COASTS .- The coast-line of the Cape Colony is of the same regular and unbroken character as that of the African continent generally, and embraces but few harbours, although it is upwards of 1.300 miles in length.

1. The first settlement was formed by the Dutch in 1652, in the immediate neighbourhood of Table Mountain. The Dutch colonists graduated in the the Great Fish River on the cast, and to the Roggevald range on the British, but was given back in 1856, at the peaks of the British her the British and has since remained British ferritory. But it was not until the year of the British for the British and has since remained British ferritory. But it was not until the year of the British for the British and has since remained British ferritory. But it was not until the year of the British for the British and has since remained British fartism former of the Cape Colony was extended to the Orange River, an artificial line, drawn considerably to the southward of that stream, having previously marked fits limits. The area of country under British rule was gradually enlarged by the annexation of British Kaffraria in 1860, Bautoland in 1863, Griqualand East in 1875, and subsequently the Transkeian territorie; so that Natai and the Cape Colony are conterminous, the boundary being the River, also belongs to the Cape Colony.

2. The Cape of Good Hops is important, both from its geographical position and from its place in the annals of discovery. It was discovered, in 147, by Bartholomew Ding, a Perfuguese to the prosecution of maritime discovery along the western die of the African continent. Dias succeeded in doubling the Cape in this voyage, and landed on the coast at some distance beyond. This feat was justly regarded as preparing the way for a pessage to India by a maritime route. Tan years later, in 1497, Vasco da Gama (also a Perfuguese) conducted the first fleet of ships to India by a maritime route. Tan years later, in 1497, Vasco da Gama (also a Perfuguese) conducted the first fleet of ships to India by way of the Atlantic and Indian Oceans, passing, of course, round this famous headland. Diar had called this long-sought headland (which he erroneously believed to be the extreme southern point of the African continent) by the name of El Cabo Carbon the targe dispervana—the Cape of Good Hope—the name which the sever since borne.



Cape Agulhas and the **Cape of Good Hope**—the two most important head. lands of South Africa—are both within the coast-line of the Cape Colony. The former is the most southerly point of the African continent and of the Old World.

INLETS.—The most considerable inlets are St. Helena, Saldanha, and Table Bays, on the west coast; False Bay with Simon's Bay, and Mossel and Algoa Bays, on the south coast.

Of the above inlets Saldanha Bay forms naturally the best harbour. At Table Bay, which is somewhat unsafe during the north-west winds, extensive harbour works are in progress which will render the harbour permanently secure and accessible at all times. Simon's Bay, which is entered through False Bay, is well sheltered and commodious, and is the principal South African Station of the British Fleet. Table Bay is so named from its vicinity to *Table Mountain*—an elongated mass of hill, with a flat top, which rises above its southern shore, and in the immediate vicinity of Cape Town. Table Mountain reaches 3,582 feet in height.

NATURAL FEATURES.—The surface of the colony rises from the sea-board to the interior, not regularly, but by a series of terraces or steps, the seaward edges of which are marked by the long ranges of mountains and hills that extend across the country from west to east.

These parallel hill-ranges increase in altitude towards the interior, and reach their culminating height in the chain of the Nieuveld Mountains, the loftiest elevations in Southern Africa. The highest portion of the Nieuveld (or the Sneeuwberg, as they are called) rises in *Compass Berg* to an elevation of 9,000 feet above the sea.

The plain that extends along the southern base of the Nieuveld Mountains is called the **Great Karroo**, and has an arid and gravelly surface. The lower plains, nearer the coast, are watered and moderately fertile. The northerly portion of the province, between the chain of the Nieuveld and the course of the Orange River, consists chiefly of extensive open plains, for the most part scantily watered.

Rivers.—The principal rivers are the Orange and the Olifants, flowing into the Atlantic; and the Breede, Gauritz, Gamtoos, Great Fish, Keiskamma, and the Kei, flowing into the Indian Ocean.

The **Orange River**, which forms the northern border of the Cape Colony, is about 1,200 miles long, but it has comparatively little volume of water, and is not navigable, except for small craft for about 50 miles above the bar at its mouth. Of the other rivers of the colony none are considerable streams, and their volume of water varies greatly with the season of the year.

Climate.—The climate of the Cape is temperate, dry, and healthy. The occasional prevalence of droughts is its chief drawback. In the eastern province rain falls in summer, but in the western in winter.¹

Productions.—The extensive open plains of the interior are admirably suited for **pastoral pursuits**; and the millions of live-stock reared upon them supply the most valuable products of the Colony.

The sheep, goats, cattle, and horses, supply the wool, mohair, skins, and hides, which, with diamonds, copper, and ostrich feathers, form the staple exports. The colony also produces excellent wheat and other cereals, with large quantities of grapes (principally used for making wine), oranges and other fruits. The heaths and other native plants are peculiar to this part of the world.

^{1.} In the north-west portion of the Great | inches; at Kimberley, 16; and at Port Elizabeth, Karroo less than 6 inches of rain fall in the year. 23, as sgainst 26 inches in London. At Cape Town, the rainfall amounts to 33

The chief mineral products are **diamonds** from the famous Kimberley mines, and **copper** from Little Namaqualand. But there are also rich deposits of **iron** ore and coal, and some gold has been found in the Knysna district.

INHABITANTS.—The Cape Colony and its dependencies contain about 1½ million inhabitants, one-third of whom are **Europeans** —mainly of Dutch, British, and German origin. The rest are **Kaffirs** and other coloured races.

A large number of the white population is of British descent, but the majority of the people in the western provinces are of Dutch origin, owing to the fact that the colony was originally established by the Dutch, and only came into the possession of Great Britain in the early part of the present century. The coloured population comprehends *Hottentois* and *Kaffirs*—the two native races of this portion of the African continent. The pure Hottentots are now few in number; the people of the Kaffir race are much more numerous, and perhaps amount to a third of the entire population of the province. Of the other races the *Malays* are the most numerous.

INDUSTRIES.—The chief pursuit is **sheep** and **cattle rearing**, for which the colony generally is better suited than for agricultural operations. **Mining**, especially for *diamonds* and *copper*, is an important industry, and furnishes by far the most valuable export.

The sheep farms are very large, but those in tillage are comparatively small. Large quantities of malze, wheat, millet, and other grains are grown, but the cultivable area is limited, owing to the deficient rainfall, and, except in some favoured localities, it is impossible to rely upon a regular return from the soil without *irrigation*. The vine is cultivated on a scale of some magnitude in the western provinces, and over 44 million gallons of wine were produced in 1890. Ostrich farming is an important industry, peculiar to, and practically a monopoly of, the colony.

Diamonds, however, form the principal and an apparently inexhaustible source of wealth to the colony. Since the gem was first discovered in South Africa in 1867, over 50 million pounds' worth of diamonds have been exported, chiefly from the Kimberley mines. **Copper ore**, the only other mineral exported, is obtained principally from the rich and productive mines of *Ookiep* in Little Namaqualand; the ore is conveyed by a railway, worked by mules, to *Port Nolloik*, whence it is shipped to South Wales to be smelted.

Means of Communication.—The roads are generally good in the more settled districts. In the interior they are mere tracks. **Railways** are now being rapidly extended, there being I,800 miles open for traffic, arranged in three systems—the **Western System**, starting from *Cape Town* and extending north to *Kimberley*, and thence through British Bechnansland via *Taungs* and *Vryburg*, to *Mafeking*; the *Midland System*, from *Port Elizabeth* to *Colesberg*, and now extended to *Bloemfontein*, the capital of the Orange Free State; and the **Eastern System**, from *East London*, through *Queenstown*, *Cyphergat*, and *Burghersdorp*, to *Alival North*. Branch lines connect *Graaf Reinet* in the interior, and *Port Alfred* on the coast, with Port Elizabeth.

Commerce.—Nearly all the trade of the Cape Colony is with the United Kingdom. Diamonds, wool, copper ore, hides and skins, ostrich feathers, gold (from the Transval), with wine and brandy, form the chief exports. The imports are principally *textile fabrics, articles of food and drink, hard*ware, and machinery. The chief ports are CAPE TOWN, on Table Bay; Port Elizabeth, on Algoa Bay; and Port Alfred and East London, on the southeast coast.

GOVERNMENT.—The Cape Colony possesses **responsible** government under a Governor appointed by the Crown.

The Revenue and Expenditure each amounts to about 41 millions a year. The Public Debt of the Colony, which amounted to 224 millions in 1890, has been incurred almost entirely in the construction of public works. Over 14 millions have been spent on railways alone.

DIVISIONS.—Cape Colony is divided into eight electoral provinces, which are subdivided into 75 magisterial districts.

The Western Province includes the older settled and the most populous portion of the Colony. **CAPE TOWN**, the chief place in the province, is the capital of the Colony and by far the most important town in the whole of British South Africa. The town, which derives its name from the famous promontory which it adjoins, stands on the shores of Table Bay, and, with its suburbs, has about 60,000 inhabitants. It was originally laid out by the Dutch, and presents in its general appearance a great resemblance to the towns in Holland. Its trade has largely increased within the last few years. The **Constantia** district to the south, and the **Stellenbosch** and **Pearl** districts to the east of Cape Town, are famous for their vineyards. **Graaf Reinet**, the oldest and the largest of the midland towns, is the chief town in the *Midland Province*.

Port Elizabeth, in the South-Eastern Province, is a great wool port on Algoa Bay. Grahamstown is a beautiful city, a favourite health-resort, and one of the most pleasant places of residence in the Colony. **East London**, at the mouth of the Buffalo River, is the chief port of the *Eastern Province*. King William's Town, an important commercial centre between East London and the interior, was formerly the capital of the territory then called British Kaffraria.

The **Province of Griqualand West** is the only part of the Colony to the north of the Orange River. Naturally bare and uninviting, except along the Orange and the Vaal, but with a dry and healthy climate, this province was inhabited, before the discovery of diamonds, by only a few thousand Griquas and a few Dutch and English settlers, until the "diggings" attracted thousands of fortunehunters to it, and, since diamond-mining has become a settled industry, **Kimberley** has been transformed from a mushroom camp into a permanent mining centre. The town of **Beaconsfield**, which is built on the north-west side of the Bultfontein and the Dutoitspan mines, is rapidly growing in importance, and ranks next to Kimberley as a mining centre.

The Transksian Territories, which extend from the Great Kei River to the borders of Natal, are dependencies of the Cape Colony. They include the Transkei (which comprises Gcalekaland, Fingoland, and the Idutywa Reserve), Tembuland, Pondoland, and Griqueland Kast. The majority of the population are natives, who are all under British rule, except those of East Pondoland. These territories, which have a total area of over 15,000 square miles and a population of 620,000 (only 11,000 of whom are Europeans), are now grouped under three chief magistrates, with several subordinate magistrates. Pondoland is under a Resident Commissioner.

The Walfish Bay district on the West Coast, which has an area of 430 square miles, is attached to the Cape Colony, and is the principal outlet for the vast, and at present undeveloped, territories which form German South-West Africa.

NATAL.

The British colony of Natal¹ includes the territory lying between the **Tugela River** on the north and the **Umtamfuna** on the south; and extending inland from the coast to the **Drakensberg Mount**ains, which separate it from Basutoland and the Orange Free State.

1. The Natal coast was discovered by Vasco da Gama on Christmas Day, 1497, hence its name.

NATAL.

Natal has an estimated area of 21,150 square miles, nearly one-third that of England and Wales, with a seaboard of about 200 miles. The distance from the coast to the Drakensberg varies from 80 to 120 miles.

Natural Features.-The coast district of Natal consists of a low plain. This rises gradually towards the interior, attaining an elevation of 1,000 feet and upwards in the central and westerly divisions of the colony. The average height of the **Drakensberg** is between 5,000 and 6,000 feet, but some of its summits attain an elevation of over 10,000 feet above the sea. The province is generally well watered. The **Tugela** is the longest of its rivers, all of which discharge into the Indian Ocean.

Productions.-The climate of Natal is warmer than that of the Cape, and its productions are in many respects different. Within the low districts that adjoin the coast, the vegetation is almost tropical in character. The sugar-cane grows wild, and the cotton-plant is capable of profitable culture. The pine-apple and the fruits of southern Europe flourish. The higher plains of the interior are adapted to the growth of wheat and other cereals of the Temperate Zone. The principal mineral productions include coal, which is now extensively worked at Newcastle and Dundee in Klip River County.

Inhabitants.-Natal now contains over 550,000 inhabitants, of whom 47,000 are Europeans, and 40,000 Indian coolies. The rest are Zulu Kaffirs. The Europeans nearly all speak English, but half of them are of Dutch descent, and there are also some German and Norwegian settlers.

Industries.—The occupations of the Kaffirs are almost exclusively pastoral, but the European colonists have brought a large portion of the land, especially along the coast, under cultivation. Sugar is the chief product of the coast region, but coffee, tea, tobacco, arrowroot, and the sweet potato are also grown. Wheat, barley, and oats are largely grown on many of the midland and upland farms. Maize and Kaffir corn (the staple food and drink material of the natives) grow luxuriantly everywhere. Sheep-farming is the most important industry in the colony, and wool the staple article of export.

The chief exports besides wool are gold, sugar and rum, skins and hides. Much of the wool and hides comes from the Orange Free State and the Transvaal, and almost all the gold from the Transvaal. Of the exports, 90 per cent. go to Great Britain, and 80 per cent. of the imports-chiefly iron and iron goods and machinery, textile fabrics, and leather goods-are British.1

GOVERNMENT.—The government of Natal is administered by a Governor aided by an Executive Council of the chief government officers, and a Legislative Council.³

DIVISIONS.—Four of the main divisions—Alfred, Alexandra, Durban, and Victoria-are on the coast; Pietermaritzburg, Weenen, and Umvoti occupy the central, and Klip River the northern, part of the country.

With the exception of Pietermaritzburg, the capital, which has a population of 17,000-of whom 9,000 are Europeans-and of Durban, the only port, with a population of 25,000-of whom one-half are Kaffirs and Indians, the towns are very small, the largest being Verulam, 19 miles by rail north-east of Durban, Ladysmith, 190 miles, and Newcastle, 264 miles by rail north-west of Durban.

: In addition to the Cape Colony and Natal, several other territories in Southern Africa are also under British rule or protection. These are (1) Zululand, (2) Swaziland, (3) Tongaland, (4) Basutoland, (5) Bechuanaland, and (6) Zambesia.

1. ZULULAND.—The British Crown Colony of Zululand lies to the northeast of Natal, from which it is divided by the Tugela River, and includes about two-thirds of the former Zulu kingdom.

British Zululand has an area of 9,000 square miles and a population of about 150,000 (of whom only 500 are Europeans). The Zulus, from being a nation of warriors, always ready and eager for war, have at last settled down to the more peaceful pursuits of agriculture and cattle-rearing. **Eshowe**, where the British Commissioner and Chief Magistrate resides, is in communication with Natal by telegraph, and by daily post. carried by native runners. **Ulundi**, on the White Unvolosi River, was the chief kraal of Cetewayo, the last king of the Zulus, and here the Zulu army, which had for so long been the terror of South-Eastern Africa, was defeated and finally dispersed.

2. SWAZILAND is a small Native State euclosed on three sides by the Transvaal, and bounded on the east by Tongaland and the Portuguese Territory. It has an area of about 8,000 square miles, and a population of about 60,000. The Lobombo Mountains extend along its eastern borders. The country is watered by the Usutu River and its tributaries.¹

3. TONGALAND is a much smaller Native State on the coast to the northeast of Zululand, and was taken under British protection in 1887. Tongaland is about 75 miles long and 40 miles broad, and has an area of about 3,000 square miles.

4. BASUTOLAND.—The British Crown Colony of Basutoland lies to the north-east of Cape Colony, and forms an irregular oval 10,000 square miles in extent, completely enclosed by the Cape Colony, Natal, and the Orange Free State. Except on the south-west, its boundaries are formed by strongly marked natural features, the great range of the Drakensberg separating the Colony from Griqualand East and Natal, while the Caledon River, a tributary of the Upper Orange, divides it on the north-west from the Orange Free State. Maseru is the capital. The Basutos, who now number about 218,000, are the most industrious and civilized of all the Kaffir tribes of Southern Africa.

5. **BECHUANALAND** lies to the north of the Cape Colony, and is bounded on the east by the Transvaal, and on the west by German South-West Africa. The total *area* is 170,000 square miles, or nearly 3 times the area of England and Wales.

The Crown Colony of British Bechuanaland is enclosed on the north and west by the Molopo-Hygap River, on the east by the Transvaal, and on the south by Griqualand West and the Orange River.

The British Protectorate of Bechuanaland includes the rest of the country north of the Molopo River to 22° of South latitude, and west to the 20° of East longitude. The colony has an area of 43,000 square miles, and the Protectorate about 127,000 square miles.

The railway has been extended from *Kimberley* to **Taungs** and **Vryburg** (774 miles from Cape Town), and is now open to **Mafeking**, in the extreme northeast of the colony, close to the western border of the Transvaal. VRYBURG is the capital of the colony, but MAFEKING is the largest European township and the chief centre of trade, which is carried on with the natives of the Protectorate and with the Boers of the Western Transvaal.

^{1.} Swariland is as yet only partly under British | Dutch, and Swari Governments respectively, protection. The Government Committee consists The Swari Government, however, acts indepenof three members, representing the British, I dentiy in all native affairs.

6. ZAMBESIA includes the vast region under British protection, or within the British 'sphere of influence' in South Central Africa, extending from Bechuanaland and the Transvaal on the south, to Lake Tanganyika on the north, and divided by the Zambesi into two great sections, which we may distinguish as Southern Zambesia and Northern Zambesia.

SOUTHERN ZAMBESIA is bounded by the Bechuanaland Protectorate on the south, German South-West Africa on the west, Portuguese East Africa on the east, and Northern Zambesia on the north. It includes Matabeleland, Mashonaland, the greater part of Khana's Country, and other native territories which were, until 1888, absolutely independent.

Matabeleland and Mashonaland are rich in gold, and the healthy and fairly fertile uplands are well adapted for *European settlement*. The Manica Plateau, especially, has immense mineral wealth, and the fertility of its soil and the salubrity of its climate make it capable of sustaining a large European population. The administration and commercial development of these territories have been entrusted to the British South Africa Company, which, by its Charter, especially undertakes to develop the mineral and other resources of the country, and to promote and aid immigration.

NORTHERN ZAMBESIA, or British Central Africa, as some prefer to call the region—now definitely declared British territory—to the north of the Zambesi, has a total area of not less than 300,000 square miles, or 6 times the area of England.

A British Imperial Commissioner controls the administration of Northern Zambesia by the **British South Africa Company**, and acts as its Administrator. He is practically Governor of **Nyassaland**, where the *African Lakes Company* and *British Missionaries* have been at work for many years. The seat of administration is at ZOMBA, in the Shiré Highlands.

THE ORANGE FREE STATE.

THE ORANGE FREE STATE is bounded on the north by the Transvaal or South African Republic, on the west by Griqualand West, on the south by the Cape Colony, and on the east by Basutoland and Natal.

Except on the west, the boundaries of the Orange Free State are formed by natural features, such as the **Vaal River**, which divides it from the *Transvaal* or South African Republic, the **Drakensberg Mountains** from *Natal*, the **Orange River** from *Cape Colony*, and the **Caledon River** (a tributary of the Orange **River**) from *Basutoland*.

The area of the State is estimated at 41,500 square miles (about four-fifths that of England), while the **population** amounts to over 207,000, an average of only five persons per square mile.

The northern portion of the country, enclosed by the **Drakensberg Mount**ains and the **Vaal River**, is level, as are also the western districts. The southeastern portion is undulating, and, in part, hilly. Most of the *rivers* in the north flow into the **Vaal**, those in the south join the **Orange** or its tributary, the **Caledon River**.

The white inhabitants (78,000 in number), most of them of Dutch descent, are mainly engaged in **sheep-farming**, and **wool** forms the principal article of export. The undulating plains afford excellent grazing, and the State is essentially a pastoral country, but in the eastern districts the soil is, in many parts, admirably adapted for wheat-growing. **Diamonds**, garnets, and other precious stones, and even gold, are found, and there are several coal mines. Ostrich farming is also an important and lucrative industry. Much of the exportable produce of the eastern part of the country is carried over the Drakensberg into Natal, the waggons returning with manufactured goods and coast produce (sugar, coffee, &c.). The waggon traffic of the southern districts is now supplemented by the new railway from Colesberg, in the Cape Colony, to Bloemfontein. The imports are supposed to amount to about a million sterling, and the exports to 2 millions a year.

The government is republican in form—an elected President holding the executive, and the Volksraad the legislative, power.¹

For administrative purposes the State is divided into five divisions, named after the chief town in each, namely, *Harrismith* and *Winburg* in the north, *Bloemfontein* in the centre, and *Fauresmith* and *Smithfield* in the south.

BLOEMFONTEIN, the capital, is a small town with less than 4,000 inhabitants. It is now connected by rail with the Cape Colony.

THE SOUTH AFRICAN REPUBLIC.

THE SOUTH AFRICAN REPUBLIC, also called the *Transvaal*, comprises an extensive territory lying beyond the Vaal River, hence its name. It is bounded on the *north* by Zambesia, and on the *west* by Bechuanaland—from both of which it is divided by the Limpopo River; on the *east* it is limited by Portuguese East Africa and Swaziland; and on the *south* by British Zululand and Natal, and the Orange Free State, from which it is separated by the Vaal River.

The area of the Republic is estimated at 122,000 square miles, or more than twice that of England and Wales. The population includes 120,000 whites (one half of whom are Dutch) and 560,000 natives—Zulu Kaffirs, Bechuanas, Makatees, and Basutos.

Generally speaking, the country is an elevated plateau of an average height of 3,000 feet, sloping west and north from the Drakensberg Mountains to the Limpopo River. The higher portion of the plateau is in the south, and forms what is known as the **Hooge Veldt** or *high country*. The Hooge Veldt has an average elevation of about 5,000 feet, and is, on the whole, well fitted for grazing. North and east of the Hooge Veldt is the **Banken Veldt** or *terrace country*, which is hilly and well-watered. This portion of the country is also well fitted for grazing, but it contains, besides, much arable land. Beyond it extends the sub-tropical **Bush Veldt** or *bush country*, which includes a broad belt enclosed by the Limpopo. The Bush Veldt is in some parts extremely unhealthy, and, being infested with the dreaded *testes fly*, is not available for pastoral purposes.

The country generally is favourable for agriculture as well as stock rearing, and there are rich goldfields around Johannesburg and Barberton. The Boers of the Transvaal are almost entirely engaged in pastoral pursuits. Immense numbers of sheep and cattle are reared, and wool and hides are largely exported, chiefly through Port Elizabeth and Durban. The country is also well adapted for the growth of careals, but at present much flour is imported. Ostrich farming is also carried on to some extent. Excellent tobacco and fine fruits are grown.

Over 20 goldfields, covering an area of over 14 million acres, have been already proclaimed. The Witwatersrand Mines, a few miles to the south of Pretoria, are by far the richest, but the **De Kaap Mines**, in the eastern part of the country, are also very productive. Several hundred companies, employing many millions of capital, and supporting a mining population of at least 50,000, are actively working for gold alone.

The government of the South African Republic is vested in an elected President and a Parliament of two Volksraaden of 24 members each.

^{1.} Like the Transvaal, the Orange Free State was settled by discontented Dutch Boers or farmers, who emigrated thither from Natal, when it was declared a British Colony. The country, how

GERMAN SOUTH-WEST AFRICA.

The country is divided, for administrative purposes, into 17 districts, which are named after their chief towns or villages. **PRETOBIA** (5) is the capital, and **Potchefstroom** was the principal place of trade before the rapid develop-ment of the goldfield towns of **JOHANNESBURG** (30) and **Barberton** (7).¹

GERMAN SOUTH-WEST AFRICA.

The German Protectorate in South-Western Africa includes the entire region between the Orange River on the south and the Cunene on the north, except the small British settlement of Walfish Bay. It extends inland from the sea to the borders of Bechuanaland (20° E. long.) and of Zambesia (21° E. long.), with a narrow strip extending north-eastwards along the Chobe River to the Zambesi.

This extensive region comprises the whole of Great Namaqualand, the whole of Damaraland (except Walfish Bay), that part of Ovampoland to the south of the Cunen River, and a large portion of the Kalahari Desert. The whole area is about 350,000 square miles, or 7 times the area of England, but the population is under a quarter of a million. From Angra Pequeña or Lüderitz Bay, on the Namaqua coast, a cattle-track leads into Central Namaqualand. There are a few Mission Stations-Bethany, Barmen, Rehoboth, &c. - on the interior uplands. Walfish Bay belongs to the Cape Colony.

QUESTIONS ON SOUTHERN AFRICA.

What colonies does Great Britain possess in Southern Africa?
 What are the boundaries of the Cape Colony?
 Describe briefly the chief natural features of the Cape Colony.
 Name some of the principal rivers of the Cape Colony.
 By what a cape agains distinguished?
 By what was the Cape of Good Hope dis-tered, much in what year?
 What do you know concerning the climate and productions of the Cape Colon?
 What races of people are found in the Cape Colony?

and productions of the cape constraints of the cape 8. What are the chief pursuits at the Cape? 9. What are the chief pursuits at the Cape? 10. Name the chief towns of the Cape Colony. 11. What famous mountain is in the vicinity of Cape Town? 12. What part of the colony is known as Griqualand West, and what is the name of its chief town? Where are the Transkian Terri-tories and Wallish Bay? 13. Point on the map to the colony of Natal, and say what you know concerning its natural features and climate.

1. The Transvaal, like the adjoining Orange Pres State, was settled by emigrant Boers from the Cape Colony and Natal. A republican form of government was established, and for some years the country made good progress. In 1878, however, serious troubles with the natives so disorganised the Boers Government that the British Commissioner, fearing a general raing of the natives, annexed the ountry in the follow-ing year. The Boers protested against the an-meration, and even sent a deputation to England,

14. What race of people constitutes the chief peoplation of Nata? What are the chief pur-suits of the European population? I.S. Name the principal town, and also the chief seaport, of Nata! I.G. What other British territories (begides the Cape Colony and Nata!) are included within Southern Africa? I.G. Give a brief description of British Zulu-land, and of Swarland and Tonguland. B. What do you know of Easttohand and Bechuanaland? I.B. What regions are included in British

Bechnanaland? 10. What regions are included in British Zambesia? Where is Mashonaland? Point to Matabeleand on the map. 20. Trace the limits of Northern Zambesia. What part of it is known as Nyassaland? 21. State what you know of the Orange Free State.

21. State was you are a state of the state. 22. Describe briefly the natural features and productions of the Transral. Name the chief towns. Which of them is the capital, and which the centre of the goldfields? 23. Give some account of German South-West

but with no effect. Their dislike to British rule at length culminated in a general rising, and in December, 1880, they proclaimed their independ-ence, and subsequently detected the British troops in several engements. Shortly after the disastrous battle of *Mayba Hall*, hostilities were suppended, and a treety signed, by which self-government was restored to the Boars under British Buserainty, which, however, was an-nulled in 1864, and the British Besident was re-placed by a Diplomatic Agent.

ISLANDS OF AFRICA.

All the islands on or off the coasts of Africa belong to various European powers, either as Colonies or Protectorates. The principal of them are Madeira, the Canaries, the Cape Verde Islands, Ascension, St. Helena and Tristan d'Acunha in the Atlantic, with Fernando Po, Prince's Island, St. Thomas, and Annobon in the Gulf of Guinea; and Madagascar, Mauritius, Béunion, Zanzibar, and Socotra, with the Comoros and other small groups in the Indian Ocean.

The Canary Islands in the Atlantic, and Fernando Po and Annobon in the Gulf of Guines, belong to Spain.

Madeira and the Cape Verde Islands in the Atlantic, with Prince's Island and St. Thomas in the Gulf of Guinea, belong to **Portugal**. Madeira has been already described (see pp. 170-1).

The islands of Ascension, St. Helena, and Tristan d'Acunha in the *Atlantic*, and Mauritius, with the Seychelles and Amirante Islands, and Socotra in the *Indian Ocean*, belong to **Great Britain**, while Zanzibar and Pemba are under British Protection.

The island of Réunion or Bourbon is a French Colony, and Madagascar and the Comoro Islands are French Protectorates.

THE CANARY ISLANDS, in the North Atlantic and about 60 miles from the African Coast, are an integral part of the Spanish monarchy, and form one of the modern provinces into which Spain has been divided.

The **Canaries** consist of seven large and six small islands, arranged in two divisions—the western including **Teneriffe**, **Gomera**, **Palma** and **Ferro**,¹ and the eastern group, **Lanzarote**, **Fuerteventura**, and **Gran Canaria**. All the islands are mountainous and of volcanic formation. The *Pico de Teyde*, or **Peak of Teneriffe**, rises to the great altitude of 12,180 feet. They are for the most part fertile, well-watered, and productive islands, enjoying a warm and healthy climate. *Corn. dates, figs, lemons, voine, sugar, tobacco, cochineal*, and *barilla* are among their productions. The population (about 300,000) is wholly of Spanish descent. The chief towns are **Santa Cruz**, the principal port on the island of Teneriffe, and **Las Palmas**, the seat of government on Grand Canary.

THE CAPE VERDE ISLANDS are an extensive group to the south of the Canary Islands, and 450 miles to the west of Cape Verde on the African Coast.

These islands are 14 in number, the largest and most fertile of them, **Santi**ago, having an area of 400 square miles. They are less fertile than either Madeira or the Canary group, but some *cotton* is grown upon them, and also the sugar-cane, with oranges and other *fruits*. Salt is one of their chief articles of produce. The population of the entire group numbers about 110,000. The principal towns are **Mindello**, on the island of St. Vincent, and **Porto Praya**, the capital, on the island of Santiago. **St. Vincent** is important as a coaling station for the Atlantic steamers, and as a telegraph station of the Anglo-Brazilian line.

The four islands in the Gulf of Guinea-Fernando Po, Prince's Island, and St. Thomas to the north, and Annobon to the south, of the equator-are

^{1.} The island of Ferro, the most westerly member of the group, is remarkable from its having been long regarded by the ancients as the sci whence to measure longitude.

of volcanic formation, and may be regarded as a continuation of the remarkable chain of volcanic peaks which extends from the Cameroons towards Lake Chad.

FERNANDO PO (830 square miles), the largest of these four islands, belongs to Spain. It is extremely fertile, producing sugar, cotton, coffee, tobacco, &c., but unhealthy. The magnificent cone of Clarence Peak rises to upwards of 10,000 feet, and its slopes are clothed with verdure from base to summit. A few Europeans, with about 1,000 Negroes, reside in Clarence, the chief place on the island.

PRINCE'S ISLAND (60 square miles) and ST. THOMAS (370 square miles), both of which belong to Portugal, are inhabited chiefly by a native race, among whom are a few Portuguese traders.

ANNOBON, which belongs to Spain, has an area of only 7 square miles, and, unlike the three larger islands, has a perfectly salubrious climate.

ASCENSION.—The British island of Ascension is nearly 1,000 miles distant from Cape Palmas, the nearest point on the West African Coast. It is only 35 square miles in area, and consists of a mass of volcanic rock, rising to a height of 3,000 feet above the sea.

This solitary oceanic island has a dry and most salubrious climate. It is under the control of the Admiralty; the governor is a naval officer, in com-mand of a company of marines, which forms the garrison. Georgetown, on the north-west of the island, is the only settlement.¹

ST. HELENA, another isolated island in the South Atlantic, 750 miles south-east of Ascension, and 1,200 miles from the nearest point of the African mainland, is a huge mass of rock, of volcanic origin, rising steeply out of the waters of the Atlantic, and reaching in its highest point 2,700 feet above the sea.

The coast of the island forms a perpendicular wall or cliff, the principal opening in which is on the north-western coast, where Jamestown, the capital, is situated. The interior exhibits a succession of hills and valleys, some of the latter very fertile and capable of producing vegetables and fruits in abundance. The climate is warm, but the position of the island, in the midst of a vast ocean, preserves it from the intense heat of the Torrid Zone. It has an area of 47 square miles and a population of about 5,000. St. Helena⁹ is a British Crown Colony, and the strong fortifications which defend James Bay are always manned by a British garrison.⁹

TRISTAN D'ACUNHA4 is the largest of a group of three islands, lying west by south of the Cape of Good Hope, at a distance of nearly 2,000 miles.

Tristan D'Acunha is a barren volcanic rock, the highest point of which reaches 6,400 feet above the sea. The inhabitants, about 100 in number, have a few sheep and cattle, and grow potatoes, &c. Provisions are sent them, at intervals, by the British Government.

REUNION.—The French island of Réunion or Bourbon, which has been a French Colony since 1649, lies about 400 miles east of Madagascar, and 110 miles south-west of Mauritius.

Réunion, which is about one-third part larger than Mauritius, contains two lofty volcances, and the whole island is of volcanic origin. The level tracts which stretch around the coast are very fertile, and the climate is healthy. The population numbers upwards of 180,000, two-thirds of whom are Creoles, the rest are Hindu and African coolies, and Malagasys. Sugar, vanilla, cloves, and coffee are the chief articles of produce. The chief town is St. Denis.

4. Discovered in 150L

^{1.} Ascension was discovered by the Portuguese on Ascension Day, 1601, hence its name. It was occupied by the British in 1813. The population, chiefly royal marines, is about 360. 2. St. Belsaa was discovered by the Portuguese in 1602, on St. Helena's Day, hence its name. The English took possession of it in 1651.

^{8.} The chief interest attaching to St. Helena is derived from the fact of its having been, dur-ing the last six years of his life, the place of exile of Napoleon the Great, who died at Long-wood in 1821. His body was removed to Faris in 1840.

MAURITIUS.—The beautiful and fertile island of Mauritius,¹ one of the most prosperous of all our colonies, lies in the Indian Ocean, about 500 miles east of Madagascar. With an area of only 705 square miles, it has a population of nearly 380,000, or 530 to the square mile, and a trade of between 5 and 6 millions sterling a year.

Mauritius is "famous for the wondrous beauty of the landscape, surpassing even that of Tahiti in the Pacific." Its surface exhibits a succession of hills and valleys; its volcanic soil was once covered by magnificent forests, which have been cleared and replaced by vast sugar plantations. The cultivation of the sugar-cane is the principal industry, and sugar forms fully three-fourths of the total exports. Rum, vanilla, aloe fibre, and cocca-nut oil are also produced. The trade of Mauritius is carried on chiefly with the British Colonies of South Africa, Australia, and India, and with the United Kingdom.

The coast is fringed by coral reefs, in which there are only two permanent openings—one on the north-west coast, leading to the splendid harbour of **FORT LOUIS** (60), the capital of the colony, and the other on the opposite side of the island, leading to the harbour on which **Mahebourg**, the only other large town, is built.

Dependencies of Mauritius.—The twin groups of the *Seychelles* and the *Amirantes*, about 600 miles north-east of Madagascar, and 1,100 miles east of Zanzibar, together with the scattered groups of coral islands in the Indian Ocean, are dependencies of Mauritius.

The prosperous **Seychelles**, which are covered with a luxuriant vegetation, especially cocca-nut palms and date trees, are 940 miles north of Mauritius; the coralline **Amirantes** are about 100 miles south-west of Mahé, the largest island of the Seychelles group. Of the numerous other islands administered by the Mauritius Government, the most important are the granitic islet of **Bodrigues**, 300 miles east of Mauritius, and the island of **Diego Garcia**, one of the Chagos Archipelago.

SOCOTRA, a British Crown Colony, is a large island 150 miles east of Cape Guardafui. Its surface is broken by gigantic mountains and limestone hills, and its sterile soil yields little beyond *aloes* and a few *dates*.

The inhabitants consist of a few thousand Arabs, and the island formerly belonged to the Sultan of Keshim, on the opposite coast of Arabia, by whom it was ceded to Great Britain in 1876, but it was not formally annexed until 1886. Socotra is important from its position at the entrance of the Gulf of Aden, on the direct route to India.

MADAGASCAR, the largest of the African islands, and, regarding Australia as a continent, the fourth largest island in the world, is 1,000 miles in length, and 350 miles at its greatest width, and has an area of about 230,000 square miles.

This great island, which, with the exception of the extreme southern part, lies wholly within the Tropics, is separated from the eastern coast of Africa by the broad and deep **Mozambique Channel**, the least distance between the island and the mainland being 230 miles. Though more than 24 times the size of Great Britain, the population of Madagascar does not exceed 4 millions, divided into numerous tribes, of whom the *Howas*, who occupy the plateau of Imerina in the central part of the island, are the dominant people.

^{1.} Mauritius was discovered in 1805 by the Dutch in 1712, it was taken by the French, who Portaguese, but was first settled in 1868 by the held it until 1810, when it was captured by the Dutch, who called it Mauritius, in honour of English. In 1874, a terrific hurricane, which their Frince Maurice. Being abandoned by the lasted four days, caused great damage.

Madagascar has high mountains running through it from north to south, and the whole interior forms an elevated plateau. A belt of low land extends round the coast, and is an extremely fertile, but most unhealthy, region. The whole island possesses great fertility, and abounds in tropical and sub-tropical plants and fruits. Its mineral resources include gold and silver, with iron, lead. and copper.

The native inhabitants of Madagascar, called the Malagasy, are a distinct race from the Negroes and Negroids of the African mainland, and are allied to the Malay family of mankind. The whole island is under the sovereignty of the intelligent and powerful Hovas, as the tribes dwelling in its most central province are called. The *Hovas* are estimated to number 1 million; the *Saka-lavas*, in the west, also number about a million; but the *Betsims Sarakas*, in the east, do not exceed half a million. There are many Creoles from Mauritius and Réunion. Arab traders and Negroes from the mainland, and a few Europeans in the coast towns.

At the beginning of the century, the Malagasys were all pagans, but, chiefly through the labours of English missionaries, most of the Hovas have been con-verted to Christianity, which is now the State religion in the island. Agri-culture and cattle-rearing are the principal industries of the Malagasy people, but silk, woollen, and cotton fabrics are manufactured by primitive methods.

The government is an absolute monarchy-the Sovereign being advised by the Prime Minister, who is the real ruler of the country. To him, the governors, placed at all the ports and chief towns in the interior, are directly responsible.

ANTANANARIVO (100), the native capital, is situated on the high plateau of Imerina, near the centre of the island. The town is built on the slope of a steep hill, and is 200 miles from Tamatave, the chief port, on the east coast, and 230 miles from the port of Mojanga, on the north-west coast.

Besides the general protectorate of the whole island, France occupies as colonies the island of Sainte Marie or Nossi Burra, off the east coast, about 80 miles to the north of Tamatave; the island of Nossi-Be, off the north-west coast, about 260 miles north of Mojanga; together with the colony and naval station of Diego Suarez, in the extreme north of Madagascar.

THE COMORO ISLANDS.—Midway between the north end of Madagascar and the mainland are the Comoro Islands, a group of four high and volcanic islands, of which Great Comoro and Mohilla are the nearest to the African Coast, and Johanna and Mayotte the nearest to that of Madagascar.

Mayotte is a flourishing French colony, exporting large quantities of sugar, rum, and vanilla. The other three islands are under the rule of the Arab Sultan of Great Comoro, and were taken under the protection of France in 1886. The bulk of the inhabitants, who number about 65,000, are Bantu negroes, and the entire group has an area of 760 square miles. The Arab and Malay traders carry on a brisk trade with Zanzibar, Mozambique, and Madagascar.

QUESTIONS ON THE	ISLANDS OF AFRICA.
 Name the principal islands on or off the coasts of Africa. Which of them belong to Great Britain? Which are under British protection? To what country do the Canary Islands be- long? Describe briefly the Cape Verde Islands. Name an important coaling and telegraph station in this group. Name the four islands in the Gulf of Guines. To whom to they respectively belong? Eay what you know of Ascension and St. 	the latter island? 7. Where are the islands of Réunion and Tristan d'Acunha?
1. By a treaty signed December, 1885, Madagas- car became a French Protectorate, which, by the Anglo-French Agreement of 1890, was recog- nized by England. There is a French Resident-	General at Antananarivo, and French Vice- Residents at Tamatare, Mojanga, and in the Betsileo country, and Agents are stationed at all other important places in the island.

OTTERMIONS ON MITE TOLANDS OF ABOTOM

AMERICA,

The great western continent, or the "New World," as America is called, lies between the Atlantic and the Pacific Oceans, and extends from the unknown regions about the North Pole, to within 2,350 miles of the South Pole, a distance of over 9,000 miles. The western or Pacific Coast of America is remarkably regular, but the eastern or Atlantic Coast is so deeply indented, that the two great masses, into which the country is divided, are united only by a narrow isthmus—the Isthmus of Panama.

Each of the two great divisions—North America and South America—are continental in point of magnitude, North America having an area of about 9 million square miles, and South America, 7 million square miles, and are thus regarded as forming two continents. The narrow isthmus-region between the two main masses is distinguished as Central America. The greater part of North America is west, and nearly all South America is east, of the 80th meridian of West longitude. Central America lies between the meridians of 70° and 100° West longitude.

The width of the American continent varies exceedingly, being 3,100 miles under the 45th parallel N. lat., 3,200 miles under the 6th parallel S. lat, while the intermediate isthmus is, at one part, only 28 miles across. To the north, the land stretches east and west along the 70th parallel N. lat. for 2,500 miles, exclusive of Greenland, while to the south it rapidly decreases in width, and terminates in a group of islands. Owing to this comparative narrowness, the New World is less than one-half the size of the Old World. Its total area. 16,000,000 square miles—is about 4 times the extent of Europe, and rather larger than that of Europe and Africa taken together.

The extreme points of the mainland are Murchison Peninsula (72° N. lat.) on the north; Cape Froward (53° 54' S. lat.) on the south; Cape Branco 34° 50' W. long.) on the east; and Cape Prince of Wales (168° W. long.) on the west.

Compared with the Old World, the greatest dimensions of America are from north to south, while those of the Old World are from east to uses, and thus no part of the former is so distant from the sea as the central region of the latter. America also, notwithstanding its immense area, has no vast deserts like those which render so large a portion of the eastern continent barren and uninhabitable; and further, the almost unbroken continuity of the great ranges which skirt the western shores of America, has no parallel in the Old World.

NORTH AMERICA.

NORTH AMERICA is the northern division of the Western Continent, or the New World, and is much larger and far more important than South America, to which it is united by the narrow isthmus of Panama.

BOUNDARIES.—North America is bounded on the north by the Arctic Ocean, on the east by the Atlantic Ocean, and on the west by the Pacific Ocean. To the south it passes (below the 30th parallel) into a narrow region, within which are embraced Mexico and the States of Central America, and finally terminates in the Isthmus of Panama. North America differs in *shape* from any of the continents of the Old World. Its greatest dimensions are from north to south, and it is of narrow proportions comparatively to its total magnitude; hence, the vast oceans on either side exercise a greater ahare of influence over its climate.

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EXTENT.—The superficial extent of North America is estimated at 9,000,000 square miles, which is considerably more than double the size of Europe, and about half that of Asia.

The greatest length, from north to south, is 4,500 miles; and its greatest breadth, under the line of the 45th parallel N. lat., is 3,100 miles.

COASTS.—The northern and eastern coasts of North America are more indented than the western. "The northern coast is bold and rocky; the western coast rocky and precipitous; while the eastern coast is low and easily accessible."

The coast-line is estimated at 24,500 miles, equivalent to 1 mile of coast to every 350 square miles of surface, a proportion of coast-line to surface of about half that of Europe, but more than twice that of Africa.

1. Inlets.-The principal inlets on the coast of North America are :--

On the north, Hudson Bay, an arm of the Atlantic, and the Gulf of Boothia and Baffin Bay, two arms of the Arctic Ocean.

On the *cast*, the Gulf of St. Lawrence, the Bay of Fundy, the Gulf of Mexico, and the Caribbean Sea.

On the west, the Gulf of California, an arm of the Pacific, and other smaller inlets.

(1.) Hudson Bay, the "Mediterranean of North America," is upwards of 1,000 miles long and between 500 and 600 miles broad, and has an area of 350,000 square miles. The principal inlets are *James Bay*, on the south, and *Chesterfield Inlet*, on the west. The broad inlet north of Southampton Island is called *Fox Channel*. Hudson Bay communicates with the Atlantic by a wide strait of the same name, and received its name from the gallant but unfortunate navigator, Henry Hudson, who discovered it in 1610.

(2.) Baffin Bay (so called from William Baffin, who explored it in 1616) lies between Greenland and the Arctic Archipelago, and is upwards of 300 miles long. It communicates with the Atlantic by Davis Strait and with the Palsecerystic Sea to the north, by Smith Sound, Kennedy Channel, and Robeson Channel. It is navigable from June to September, but during the rest of the year is so encumbered with floating and fixed ice as to be impassable. The Gulf of Boothia is a large indentation on the Arctic Coast of America, and is connected with Baffin Bay by Prince Regent Inlet and Lancaster Sound, and with the Arctic Ocean by Bellot Strait, Franklin Channel, Meiville Sound, and McClure Strait.

(3.) The **Gulf of St. Lawrence** is enclosed on three sides by Newfoundland and the coasts of Canada and Nova Scotia. To the west, it opens into the wide estuary of the St. Lawrence; to the east, it communicates with the Atlantic by three openings—the broad *Cabot Strait* between Newfoundland and Cape Breton Island, the narrow *Strait of Belle Isle* between Newfoundland and the Labrador Coast, and the still narrower *Gut of Canso*, between Cape Breton Island and Nova Scotia. This gulf is deep, but thick fogs greatly endanger its navigation in summer, and in winter it is entirely frozen over.

(4.) The **Bay of Fundy**, between Nova Scotia and New Brunswick, is remarkable for its strong and rapid tides, which at the equinoxes attain the astonishing height of 70 feet.

(5.) The **Gulf of Mexico** is an oval-shaped basin with an extreme diameter of more than 1,000 miles, and an area of 800,000 square miles. It communicates with the Atlantic by the *Strait of Florida*, and with the Caribbean Sea by the broader *Channel of Yucatam*. Except near the shore, the navigation is easy, but it is subject in winter to violent winds called "Nortes." The characteristic features of this gulf are the high temperature of its water and its being the *cul-de-sac*, whence issues the most important thermal current of the Atlantic —the Gulf Stream.

(6.) The **Caribbean Sea** lies between the coasts of Central and South America on the west and south. Vessels enter this sea from the Atlantic by the Mona, Windward, and other numerous "passes" or channels between the islands of the West Indies, which limit it on the east. The Caribbean Sea extends east and west for about 1,800 miles, and north and south for upwards of 1,000 miles.

(7.) The **Gulf of California**, the largest of the inlets on the Pacific Coast of America, has an average breadth of 80 miles, and extends inland for 700 miles. Far more important, commercially, are the smaller indentations of **San Francisco Bay**, on the coast of California, and the **Gulf of Georgia**, between Vancouver Island and the mainland of British Columbia.

2. Straits and Channels.—The principal straits and channels are:— Davis, Barrow, Melville, McClure, and Bering, on the north; Hudson, Belle Isle, Cabot, Canso, Florida, and Yucatan, on the east; and Juan de Fuca and Queen Charlotte Sound, on the west.

Davis Strait connects Baffin Bay with the Atlantic Ocean. Barrow Strait (with Lancaster Sound, Melville Sound, and McClure Strait) connects Baffin Bay with the Arctic Ocean. Bering Strait connects the Arctic and Pacific Oceans, and separates the continents of North America and Asia. Hudson Strait connects Hudson Bay with the Atlantic Ocean.

3. Capes.—The principal capes are Barrow and Bathurst on the north; Farewell in Greenland, Charles and Chudleigh in Labrador, Race in Newfoundland, Sable in Nova Scotia, Cod in Massachusetts, Hatteras in North Carolina, Sable in Florida, Catoche in Yucatan, and Gracias à Dios in Nicaragua, on the east; and San Lucas in Lower California, Mendocino in California, Blanco in Oregon, Flattery in Washington, and Prince of Wales in Alaska, on the west.

The most northerly point of the American mainland is Murchison Promontory, the extreme point of Boothia Peninsula. This headland is, however, not much further north than the better known point of Cape Barrow. Cape Charles is the most easterly point of the mainland of North America, and Cape Prince of Wales the most vesterly point.

4. Peninsulas.—The peninsulas of Labrador, Nova Scotia, Florida, and Yucatan are on the *east* side of North America; Lower California and Alaska on the *west*; and Boothia and Melville on the *north*.

The peninsula of Labrador terminates in *Cape Chudleigh*. Nova Scotia is joined to the mainland by the *Isthmus of Chignecto*, 17 miles across. Florida ends in *Cape Sable*, and Yucatan in *Cape Catoche*. Lower California terminates in *Cape San Lucas*, and Alaska in *Cape Prince of Wales*, the most westerly point of the American mainland.

5. Isthmuses.—The most important *isthmus* in the New World is that of Panama, which connects North and South America.

(1.) The Isthmus of Panama is a narrow region, of considerable length (between four and five hundred miles), which divides the waters of the two greatest oceans of the globe. Its breadth varies from less than thirty to between seventy and eighty miles. 6. Islands.—The islands on and off the northern, eastern, and northwestern coasts of North America are exceedingly numerous. Greenland and other Polar islands on the north are the largest, but the West Indies and the Canadian Islands are the most important. The Bermudas are a group of islands in the Atlantic, 600 miles east of Cape Hatteras.

Greenland, although it has never been circumnavigated, is now known (from observations on the tidal currents) to be an island, and (regarding Australia as a continent) the largest in the world. The Canadian Islands include Newfoundland, Cape Breton Island, Prince Edward Island, and Anticosti on the east coast, and Vancouver and Queen Charlotte Islands, on the west coast. Long Island is on the eastern coast of the United States. Prince of Wales Island, Baranoff, Kodiak, and other islands are on the western coast of Alaska. The West Indies are an insular region of vast extent, and embrace a great multitude of islands, of various sizes and forms. The largest of the number is Cuba; the second in size, Hait1; the third, Jamaica; and the fourth, Porto Rico. All the rest are of much smaller dimensions.

BELLIEF.—The three main features in the *relief* of the North American continent are (1) the great **Facific Highlands**, which extend through the western part of North America, almost from the Arctic shores to the Isthmus of Panama, and are traversed by the Rocky Mountains and other high mountain chains; (2) the vast **Central Plains**, which descend gradually from the crests of the Rocky Mountains and include the Mississippi-Missouri and the Great Lake regions; and (3) the **Atlantic Highlands** in the eastern part of the continent, which extend from the northern coast of Labrador nearly to the Gulf of Mexico, and include the Alleghany and other ranges to the south of the St. Lawrence.

The PACIFIC HIGHLANDS include the system of tablelands and mountains of which the Rocky Mountains are the most important. They are several hundred miles from the shores of the Pacific, and the intervening country consists of a succession of plateaux, bordered on the west by the Sierra Nervada, the Cascade Range, and other mountain chains, which rival in altitude the main ranges of the Rocky Mountains, which reach in their highest elevations nearly 16,000 feet above the level of the sea. Mount Brown (15,900 feet) and Mount Hooker (15,700 feet) are two of the loftiest points. These and other lofty summits are within the middle and southern portions of the mountain system. To the north, the mountains diminish in height and sink into mere hills as they approach the shores of the Arctic Ocean.

Some of the mountains which skirt the Pacific Coast of North America attain a height that surpasses that of the Rocky Mountains. Mount St. Ellas, on the border-line between British Columbia and Alaska, rises to a height of 19,500 feet, but Mount Wrangell, the culminating point of the North American continent, attains an elevation of 21,000 feet. In the Cascade Range, further south, Mount Hood and Mount St. Helen are both nearly 14,000 feet high, but Mount Whitney in the southern part of the Sierra Nevada rises still higher.

The entire region to the west of the Rocky Mountains consists of highlands, alternating with mountain chains and enclosed valleys. The most remarkable portion of this tract is the **Plateau of Utah**, a territory which is enclosed by mountain chains on every side, and has its own system of river drainage, like some of the interior plains of the Asiatic continent.

The highlands which stretch along the western side of North America are prolonged southward into the narrow regions of Mexico and Central America, the whole interior of which consists of elevated plateaux. The highest parts of the Mexican tablelands reach 9,000 feet above the sea. From these plateaux rise numerous volcances, several of which attain a great height. The loftiest of the number is Orisaba, which reaches a height of 18,207 feet above the sea, and is the highest mountain in Mexico. Popocatepeil, another great cone, rises 17,515 feet above the sea.

The Tablelands of Central America, to the south-east, are less elevated than the Mexican tablelands. Their western side is bordered by a succession of lofty peaks, many of them active volcances.

THE ATLANTIC HIGHLANDS include the low Plateau of Labrador (about 2,000 feet in height) to the north, and the Apalachian Mountains to the south of the St. Lawrence, the principal ranges of which are the White Mountains in New Hampshire, the Green Mountains in Vermont, the Adirondacks in the north of the State of New York, the Alleghanies in Pennsylvania, and the Black Mountains in North Carolina. The highest peaks are Mount Washington, 6,288 feet, in New Hampshire, and the Black Dome, 6,707 feet, in North Carolina.

THE CENTRAL FLAIM.—The whole interior of North America, from the Gulf of Maxico to the Arctic Ocean, and from the Rocky Mountains to the Alleghanies, is a vast lowland plain, broken only by the "Height of Land," which extends from the Plateau of Labrador westwards between Hudson Bay and the Great Lakes, and forms the main water-parting east of the Rockies. To the north of this "Height of Land," the land slopes towards Hudson Bay and the Arctic Ocean, into one or other of which the rivers are discharged. To the south of it, the land inclines towards the Gulf of Mexico, and is watered by the great river Mississippi and its tributaries.

The Central division of the Great Plain of North America is the region of the prairies. These are vast natural meadows, which occupy the basins of the Upper Mississippi and Missouri, together with those of the Red River, the Assiniboine and the Saskatchewan. Nearer the mountains, the plain is often covered with trees. Alternate forest and prairie form, indeed, the distinguishing feature of nature in the New World.

THE ATLANTIC COAST PLAIN.—To the east of the Alleghany Mountains there is a lowland plain of some extent which borders the Atlantic Coast, and is, therefore, known as the Atlantic Coast Plain. There are extensive marshy tracts in some parts of this region towards the sea.

The lowland plains of the New World bear a much larger proportion to its entire extent than do the highland regions. America differs strikingly in this respect from the Asiatic continent. In Asia, the mountains and highlands fill up the great central regions of the continent, and the lowlands occupy its outer borders; in North America, the lowland plains constitute the great mass of the continent, while the highlands are limited to the vicinity of the ocean.

RIVERS.—The eastern half of North America possesses a magnificent system of navigable rivers, but the country to the west of the Rocky Mountains is poorly supplied with waterways. The four great rivers of North America are the St. Lawrence, flowing *east* into the Atlantic; the Mississippi, flowing *south* into the Gulf of Mexico; the Yukon, flowing *west* into the Bering Sea, an arm of the Pacific ; and the Mackenzie, flowing *north* into the Arctic Ocean.

1. The **St. Lawrence** has a comparatively short course, but it pours into the sea an immense volume of water, derived from the Great Lakes, of which it forms the outlet. Towards its mouth it becomes a vast estuary, increasing, below Quebec, from 25 to upwards of 100 miles in width.

2. The **Mississippi**—measuring from the mouth of the river up to the source of its great tributary, the **Missouri**, is nearly 4,200 miles long—a greater length of channel than belongs to any other river in the world. The Mississippi rises in the midst of the central plain, in *Elk Lake*, a little to the south of Lake Itasca. The Missouri rises in the Rocky Mountains, and joins the Mississippi about midway in the course of the latter river, a short distance above the town of St. Louis. The Mississippi has a vast number of tributaries, of which the *Arkansas* and the *Red River*, on the right bank, and the *Ohio*, on the left, are the most considerable. The Mississippi and its tributaries furnish an internal navigable system of 20,000 miles, which is unequalled on the globe, with the exception of that afforded by the Amazon and its branches in South America. The **Rio Grande del Norte**, which forms part of the boundary between the United States and Mexico, with other smaller rivers that drain the Gulf Plain to the east is drained by numerous rivers—the **St. John, Hudson, Connecticut**, &c. —directly into the Atlantic.

3. The Yukon River, 2,400 miles in length, is one of the great rivers of the world, but, unfortunately, it flows for the most part through a desolate and almost uninhabitable region. The Mackenzie River is also an immense stream, but, though it discharges into the Arctic Ocean, its main feeders, the Athabasca and the Peace Rivers, flow through fertile and habitable prairie lands far to the south.

4. South of Alaska, the Pacific slope is drained by the **Fraser**, which discharges into the Gulf of Georgia; the **Columbia**, which has an extremely tortuous course of over 1,000 miles from the Rockies to the sea; the **Sacramento**, which enters the Bay of San Francisco; and the **Colorado**, which plunges through stupendous canons to the Gulf of California.

LAKES.—The *lakes* of North America are more numerous and extensive than those of any other continent. Besides the five Great Lakes that belong to the basin of the St. Lawrence, all the northern part of the great plain, from the shores of Hudson Bay to the foot of the Rocky Mountains, exhibits a labyrinth of lakes and connecting river-channels.

The five Great Lakes—Superior, Michigan, Huron, Erie, and Ontario have together an area of 98,000 square miles, which exceeds that of the whole island of Great Britain by 9,000 square miles. The largest of the Great Lakes, Lake Superior, is also the largest freshwater lake on the globe. It covers 32,000 square miles, which is about the size of Ireland, and receives more than 200 rivers. These lakes are united by channels which pass from one to the other, the whole forming a continuous body of water, and the River St. Lawrence connects them with the ocean. The water of Lake Champlain, in the United States, also passes, by the River Richelieu, into the St. Lawrence. The River St. Lawrence and the Great Lakes in its basin are estimated to contain more than half the fresh water on the globe.

Only one of the five great lakes—Lake Michigan—lies wholly within the United States. The boundary line between the United States and Canada passes through the rest. But all the lakes of the northern plain are within the Dominion. Of these, the largest are Great Bear Lake, Great Slave Lake, and Lake Athabasca, all connected with the Mackenzie River, and Lake Winnipeg, which is discharged by the Nelson River into Hudson Bay.

Great Salt Lake, in Utah, receives most of the drainage of the Great Basin. Its waters are more salt and bitter than those of the sea. Other considerable bodies of water are Lake Chapala in Mexico, and Lake Nicaragua in Central America.

... One thing deserving of special notice in the physical geography of North America, is the way in which its river basins are connected with one another-there being in several cases no intervening high ground between their respective waters. The source of one of the small tributaries of the Upper Mississippi is only a few miles' distance from a stream (the Red River) which flows into Lake Winnipeg, and there is nothing but a tract of meadow between the two. Again, from Lake Wol-laston (one of the smaller lakes of the great northern plain, to the south-east of lake Athabasca) there issue two streams, one at each extremity of the lake. One of Lake Athabased) there issue two streams, one at each extremity of the lake. One of these streams ultimately finds its way into the river Churchill, which discharges into Hudson Bay; the other passes into Lake Athabasea, which belongs to the basin of the Mackenzie River. This peculiarity in the river drainage of the North American continent results from the generally level nature of its was interior, and is highly important, as adding to its facilities for extended inland navigation.

EXAMINATION QUESTIONS.

1. What isthmus connects North and South America

America? 2. By what oceans is North America bounded on the east, north, and west? 8. What, in round numbers, is the area of North America? What proportion does this bear to the magnitude of Europe? What to that of Asia?

that of Asia?
A. Name the seas, gulfs, &c., on the east side of North America.
B. Point to the following on the map:-the Gulf of Boothia, Gulf of California, Gulf of St. Lawrence, and Bay of Fundy.
What strait forms the entrance to Baffin Bay?
What strait of Mudson Bay?
What straits and sounds connect Baffin Bay

7. What straits and sounds connect Baffin Bay with the Arctio Ocean?
8. Name as many as you can of the principal capes of North America. Which is the most northerly? Which the most westerly?
9. What four peninsulas aleong to the eastern side of North America?
10. What two peninsulas are on the western at the of this continent?

Bide for this smally as you can be marked and an analysis of the second state of the second s

14. What kind of country extends along the Pacific Coast of North America, between the Rocky Mountains and the sea?

In what part of North America are the following:-Mount St. Elias the Plateau of Utah, and the tablelands of Mexico?
 Name the highest among the volcanic cones that rise above the Mexican tablelands.
 What portions of North America, form a great lowland plain? By what mountains is this bordered on the east and west?
 What are the prairies, and in what part of North America do they occur?
 Among the rivers of North America, which one the othe Galt of Mexico? Which one into the Gulf of St. Lawrence?
 What two twore flow into Hudson Bay?

into the Gulf of Sk Lawrence? 20. What two tivers flow into Hudson Bay? Trace out their courses on the map. 21. Name as many as you can of the North American rivers that flow directly into the Atlantic, and trace them on the map. 22. What four rivers belong to the Pacific Coast of North America? Which one of them flows into the Gulf of California? 23. What three rivers flow into the Arctic Ocean?

Ocean? 24. Among the rivers of North America, which two are of superior importance to the others? 25. Which is the largest among the lakes of North America? What four other lakes, of large size, are connected with this? 26. Point on the map to the following :--Lake Winnipeg, Great Bear Lake, Lake Athabasea, Lake Nicaragua, and the Great Sait Lake. 27. What condition of physical geography de-tivers to be specially noticed in regard to the rivers of North America? Why is this impor-tant.

CLIMATE.—The climate of the New World is slightly colder, in corresponding latitudes, than that of the Old World. This is the case both in North and South America, but is more especially so in the former. This is easily accounted for. The broadest parts of America are those which stretch into its higher latitudes; within the tropics, North America is narrowed by the near approach of the oceans upon either side.

1. The American climate is also, for the most part, moister than that of the eastern division of the globe. The quantity of rain which falls in some parts of tropical America is surprisingly great—sceeding greatly the rainfall of southern Asia and the neighbouring archipelago. Within temperate latitudes, the amount is generally greater than in corresponding regions of the Old World.

2. The eastern side of North America is colder than the western side, and is also liable to greater extremes of heat and cold at opposite seasons. In these respects, the northern half of the New World resembles the European and Asiatic continents, upon the other side of the globe. All the country to the east of the Rocky Mountains is liable to severe winters, and to summers of intense The Atlantic coasts of the United States and the regions adjacent to the heat. Gulf of St. Lawrence offer striking examples of this. Quebec is in nearly the

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same latitude as Paris, but it has a lower average of yearly temperature, while its summers are hotter and its winters colder than those of the French capital. The coast of Labrador stretches through the same parallels of latitude as the shores of Britain, but the climate of the two regions is widely different. The winter of Labrador is one of intense and long-continued severity, and its shores are rendered unapproachable by ice during many months of each year.

3. The islands of the West Indies, the coasts of Central America, the low plain at the foot of the Mexican plateau, and the southernmost portions of the United States, are the *hottest* regions of North America. The *coldest* parts are those that stretch from Hudson Bay towards the shores of the Arctic Ocean.

PRODUCTIONS.—Of the natural productions of North America, the practically inexhaustible supply of the precious metals, as well as the more useful metals and minerals, is a characteristic feature. The native vegetation is also particularly rich and varied. Both the native vegetation and zoology of America differ greatly from those of the eastern continent.

1. Minerals.—The mineralogy of America is equally varied as that of the Old World, and is perhaps (in some respects) richer. The country lying to the west of the Rocky Mountains is one of the chief gold-producing regions of the world. California, Colorado, Idaho, and Nevada, within the United States, and British Columbia, further to the northward, are the great localities of auriferous deposits. Mexico is also a region of great mineral wealth, and its mines supplied at a former period considerable amounts of both gold and silver.

The countries on the eastern side of North America—especially in the neighbourhood of the Alleghany Mountains and the St. Lawrence basin—are rich in the more useful productions of the mineral kingdom—*iron* and other metals, with *coal*. The coalfields of the United States are of vast extent and great value. Coal also occurs in New Brunswick, Nova Scotia, and Cape Breton Island. Canada is also rich in ores of *iron*, *copper*, and *lead*.

2. Plants.—The native vegetation of the New World differs in many important particulars from that belonging to the continents of the Eastern Hemisphere. Many of the plants and trees that are common in the Old World are not found upon the opposite side of the Atlantic Ocean; while, on the other hand, the productions of the American soil are in numerous instances peculiar to that portion of the globe. Even in the case of plants which belong to the same *genus* (or family), the species that are found in the opposite hemispheres are nearly always distinct. These differences are independent of climate, for the plants (and also the members of the animal kingdom) that belong to either continent are continually transported by man to regions distant from their native seat, and are found to flourish wherever the conditions of soil and climate are suitable for their development.

(1.) The vegetation and zoology of the New World at the present time has become, in virtue of such changes, different in many respects from what it was three and a half centuries since, when Europeans first planted their footsteps upon its shores. Numerous plants, and also numerous animals, which were *then* only found within the limits of Europe or Asia, now flourish within the valleys of the Mississippi and the St. Lawrence; while, on the other hand, the native productions of America have become distributed over the different regions of the Old World.

(2.) The characteristic differences between the vegetation of America and that of the continents belonging to the eastern half of the globe are least marked within high northerly latitudes, and become greater with every advance towards a more southern sky. The lands that lie in proximity to the Arctic Circle possess many features in common, alike in regard to plants and animals.

(3.) Of food-plants native to the New World, maize (or Indian corn), among the cereals, and the potato, among tuberous roots, are the two of greatest im-

portance, and the distribution of which through other lands has conferred the greatest boon upon man. Maize is the only one of the cereals that is native to the American continent, but wheat, barley, oats, and rice are extensively cultivated.

(4.) The manics (or cassava) and arrowroot—both belonging to the order of tubers¹—are also among the native food-plants of America. The manico-plant is a native of Central America, but is more abundantly distributed within the southern half of the New World. The tobacco-plant—now extensively diffused through other lands—is another of the characteristic productions of the American soil, though not exclusively a native of that region.

(5.) Plants of the *cactus* tribe are among the native productions of tropical America. The *asalea* and *magnolia*, among the ornaments of our greenhouses, are also derived from the New World.

(6.) The forests of North America are of vast extent, and the timber which they supply forms one of the most valuable commercial products of the continent. The variety of trees—most of the deciduous kind—is astonishingly great. But they exhibit, in nearly all cases, specific differences from the like trees that flourish in the corresponding latitudes of Europe and Asia.

8. Animals.—When America was first visited by Europeans it had none of the domesticated animals that are familiar to our common observation. Neither the horse, the ass, the common ox and sheep, the hog, the camel, nor the elephant, are native to the New World. Similarly, among carnivorous quadrupeds, the lion, tiger, leopard, and hyena are unknown in the American wilderness. The *puma* and the *jaguar*, natives of tropical America, are the most formidable of its carnivora; but they are decidedly inferior, both in strength and ferocity, to the lion and tiger of the Old World. In the higher latitudes of North America, the numerous wolves, foxes, and bears, with the Canadian lynx, exhibit nearer approach to the zoology of correspondent regions in the eastern half of the globe, and the mossedeer or elk supplies a parallel to the reindeer of northern Europe.

(1.) The bison or American buffalo is one of the most characteristic animals native to the American prairie, but it is now almost exterminated. The *musk-cox* and other members of the deer kind also occur. The *beaver* and numerous fur-bearing animals abound in the colder latitudes of the American continent.

(2.) The birds of America, and also the reptiles, insects, and other members of the animal world, are in nearly all cases different from those of other continents. The aquatic birds, within very high latitudes (that is, beyond the Arctic Circle), and also some of the members of the insect tribe in similar localities, offer the only exception to this. The true humming-birds are peculiar to America. The ratilesnake and the boa-constrictor are also American. The moist climate and abundant vegetation of the New World favour the development of the class of life to which the various members of the reptile and insect orders belong.

INHABITANTS.—The population of North America numbers about 85 millions, or 9 to the square mile—a density of only *one*tenth that of Europe, or *one-fifth* that of Asia, but exceeding that of Africa, and nearly *twice* that of South America. The great majority of these are whites, members of the European division of mankind. The rest are Negroes, native Indians, and mixed races.

The native of America is the red (or copper-coloured) Indian-one of the five leading varieties into which the human family is commonly divided.

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^{1.} Tubers are those plants which have knobs or lumps attached to their roots. The potato and the year are the two most important of the is a native of Mexico.

The numbers of this race have greatly diminished since the period of Euro-pean settlement in the New World, and they are still rapidly diminishing. Within the whole vast territory of the United States there are only about a quarter of a million of the native American race now left. They are more numerous within Mexico and the States of Central America, where the genuine Indian is intermixed with the members of the half-caste race.

The white population of the United States and Canada comprehends members of most European lands, but those of British descent are by far the most numerous. Hence the English language has become diffused over much the larger portion of the North American continent. Within tropical America, the Spanish tongue is generally prevalent, since the white population of Mexico and the Central American States is almost exclusively of Spanish origin.

DIVISIONS.—The following are the principal divisions of North America :---

1. ARCTIC AMERICA. 2. BRITISH NORTH AMERICA.

8. THE UNITED STATES OF AMERICA

4 MEXICO.

5. CENTRAL AMERICA.

THE WEST INDIES. R

EXAMINATION QUESTIONS.

Describe the climate of the New World.
 Comparing the eastern and western costs of North America, what characteristic difference of climate do they exhibit;
 Barrian? Which the coldest?
 Which the coldest?
 Which the coldest?
 Which the coldest?
 What parts of North America constitute rich gold-producing regions?
 In what respect do the plants and animals that are found within the New World in the present day differ from those which characterised it four conturies ago?
 Which parts of North America make the nearest approach in their native regetation and colongy to the productions of a like kind in the Old World?
 Andre Stocharts, mention some that are

6. Among food-plants, mention some that are indigenous to the New World. What other food-plants are extensively cultivated?

9. Among the domesticated quadrupeds, name

some that were unknown to the New World at the period of its discovery by Europeans. 10. Mention the principal native American

10. Mention the principal neares American quadruped: What animal represents in North America 11. What animal represents in North America the reindeer of Northern Europe? 12. Mention some of the characteristic ex-amples among birds and roptiles 10. What conditions of the American climate 10. What conditions of the American climate 10. The development of reptile and insect life?

14. To what division of the family of man does the great majority of the population of North America belong³ 15. Besides the above, what other families of mankind are represented in the population of America ³

America?

America? 16. In which parts of North America does the English language prevail? In which parts does the Spanish tongue? 17. Name the principal divisions of the North-American continent.

ARCTIC AMERICA.

ARCTIC AMERICA may be said to include not only the islands and coasts actually within the Arctic Circle, but also the great belt of Polar lands as far south as the 60th parallel of N. lat., and thus comprises the whole of the great island of Greenland, with the adjacent Arctic Archipelago, the northern portion of the North-West Territories of Canada, and the United States Territory of Alaska.

GREENLAND may either be regarded as the largest member of the Arctic Archipelago, or, more correctly, perhaps, as a Polar land distinct from America.

This huge Polar island, the largest in the world, if Australia is ranked as a continent, lies to the north-east of the mainland of North America, and is divided from Baffin Land and the Arctic Archipelago by a long channel, which, under various names—Davis Strait, Baffin Bay, Smith Sound, Kennedy Channel, and Robeson Channel—extends continuously from the open Atlantic to the "Palescorystic Sea,"¹ as that part of the ice-covered Polar Ocean to the north of Robeson Channel is called. On the east, Greenland is divided by a broad channel—Denmark Strait—from Iceland.

Of the 176 inhabited settlements, the most noteworthy are **Frederiksthal**, the nearest to Cape Farewell, **Godthaab**, the residence of the governor of South Greenland, **Julianshaab** and **Lichtenau**, on the site of the old Icelandic colonies, in the Southern Inspectorate; and **Godhavn**, on Disco Island, the residence of the governor of North Greenland, and **Upernavik**, in lat. 72° 40° N., which, except the little hamlet of **Tasiusak**, a few miles further north, is the northernmost settlement on the continent, and the most northerly permanent settlement in the world.

BRITISH ARCTIC AMERICA is politically included in the vast Dominion of Canada, but in truth "the entire Polar regions of America, from Bering Strait to Baffin Bay and the whole territory of Greenland, nominally owned by three different powers—Denmark, Britain, and the United States—are the domain of the one race which can wrest a living from them ; one of vast antiquity, which has adapted itself through ages of evolution to its terrible environments —the Eskimo."

British Arctic America includes not only the apparently inextricable maze of "lands" and islands, intersected by innumerable channels, straits, and sounds, but also the inhospitable shores of the adjoining mainland, which stretches poleward, in the great **Peninsula of Labrador**, to the east of **Hudson Bay**. To the north and west of this great inland sea, two small peninsulas—**Melville Penin**sula and **Boothia Felix**—also run northward; the one reaching the 70° N. lat, and the other—the most northerly point of the American mainland—attaining a point (lat. 72° N.) only 1,260 miles from the North Pole itself.

ALASKA.—The vast *Territory of Alaska*, which has an area of 580,000 square miles, or 10 times that of England and Wales, embraces the extreme northwestern portion of the continent, together with the long chain of the **Aleutian Islands**, and a strip of the coast and the adjacent islands to the south of Mount St. Elias. Alaska belongs to the United States, and was acquired by purchase from Russia in 1867.

The 1,500 islands, that skirt the south-western coast of Alaska, are the northern portion of the great archipelago, which ends in Vancouver Island. The largest of the Alaskan islands is **Prince of Wales Island**; on **Baranoff** Island, the next in size, is **SITKA** or New Archangel, the capital of the territory.

BRITISH NORTH AMERICA.

BRITISH NORTH AMERICA embraces the whole of the northern half of the continent, except Greenland and Alaska. This immense territory, which is nearly as large as all Europe, is, with the exception of *Newfoundland* and *Labrador* and the small islands of *St. Pierre* and *Miquelon* off the south coast of Newfoundland, included in the Dominion of Canada.

NEWFOUNDLAND³ the oldest and, in many respects, the most peculiar British Colony, is a large island at the mouth of the Gulf of St. Lawrence.

^{1.} ic., The Sea of Ancient Ice. 2. Newfoundland was first discovered by Nor. Wegiana about the year 1000, and was visited by 1723.

With an area of over 42,000 square miles, or one-sixth larger than that of Ireland, and with inexhaustible fisheries and large tracts of rich agricultural, mineral, and timber lands, the colony has a population of only 200,000. or less than that of Belfast.

The island is triangular in shape—the three extreme points being Cape Horman on the north, Cape Bay on the south-west, and Cape Bace on the south-east. The coast-line, 2,000 miles in length, is deeply indented. The interior of Newfoundland has, until recent years, remained a terra incognita, and even yet Avalon Peninsula is the only part of the island containing any settlement more than a mile from the coast.

The climate is not so extreme as that of Canada, but, although the island could support an agricultural population numbered by millions, agriculture is practically unknown, and **cod-fishing** in summer, and **seal-hunting** in winter and spring, are the chief occupations of the people, but **mining** and lumbering are engaging an increasing amount of labour. The cod-fishery on the **Grand Banks** of Newfoundland is the most important in the world, but the islanders damad a biging up the lass ricks about for a field of the seal of the s depend chiefly upon the less risky shore fishery.

The Governor is ap-Newfoundland possesses responsible government. pointed by the Crown ; the House of Assembly is elected by the people. The capital, ST. JOHN'S, is a town of over 80,000 people, beautifully situated on a splendid harbour-"one of the very best on the Atlantic coast"---on the eastern side of the Peninsula of Avalon. It is now connected by rail with Harbour Grace (7), on the west side of Conception Bay, and with Placentia, on Placentia Bay.

LABRADOR.—The adjoining coast territory of Labrador, from the Strait of Belle Isle on the south, to Cape Chudleigh, at the entrance of Hudson Strait, on the north, is politically attached to Newfoundland. Some of the most valuable fisheries-cod, herring, trout, and salmon-in the world, are found off the coast of this sterile region. Nain and Hopedale are the chief settlements, and there are also a few trading posts of the Hudson Bay Company.

ST. PIERRE and MIQUELON are two small islands off the south coast of Newfoundland. They belong to France, and are the sole remnants of her once vast North American possessions.

These barren and rocky islets, only 100 square miles in area, have a population of 6,000 persons, and are visited by between 2,000 and 3,000 shipsprincipally French vessels engaged in cod fishing-every year. France retains possession of them in accordance with the Treaty of Utrecht (1713).

EXAMINATION QUESTIONS.

1. What territories outside the Arctic circle may yet be said to form part of Arctic America? 2. Give a brief description of Greenland. What channels separate it from the Arctic ialands to the west? Name the strait that separ-ates Greenland from Iceland. 3. What part of the Dominion of Canada falls within the limits of British Arctic America?

4. To what country does Alaska belong? Point out the capital of the territory. 5. What portion of the North American con-tinent is included in British North America? 6. Describe Newfoundland. What part of the adjoining mainland is attached to the colony? 7. Where are the islands of St. Pierre and Miqueion? To whom do they belong?

THE DOMINION OF CANADA.

The magnificent Dominion of Canada embraces the whole of the mainland of North America to the north of the United States. Newfoundland, St. Pierre, and Miquelon.

This immense territory stretches right across the continent, from the Atlantic on the east, to the **Pacific** on the west, and from the **Great Lakes** and the 49th **parallel** of N. lat. (which divides it from the United States) on the south, to the Arctic Ocean on the north.

Extent.-It is difficult to convey any idea of the vastness of the Dominion of Canada. From the Atlantic on the east to the Pacific on the west is a direct distance of more than 3,000 miles, while more than 2,000 miles of mountain and prairie extend between the International Boundary and the shores of the Arctic Ocean. With an area of 31 million square miles-not including the area covered by the Great Lakes-the Dominion is nearly as large as Europe. and 40 times the size of Great Britain.

Coasts.-Bounded, as the Dominion is, by three oceans, it has, besides its numerous inland seas, many thousands of miles of sea coast. The older Provinces have 2,500 miles of sea coast and inland seas, while the sea coast of British Columbia alone is over 3,000 miles in extent, exclusive of minor indentations.

RELIEF.—By far the greater part of Canada is level—the only mountainous region is in the west, where the magnificent natural rampart of the **Rocky Mountains** forms the western boundary of the Prairie Region of Central Canada. Eastern Canada¹ is in parts hilly, but there are no extensive level plains and no high mountain ranges.

The portion of the Rocky Mountains in Canada is about 1,500 miles in length. and culminates in Mount Brown, 16,000 feet, and Mount Hooker, 15,690 feet. Between the Rocky Mountains and the Pacific Coast, and parallel with them, are other ranges—the Gold Ranges and the Coast or Cascade Range. The Pacific slope and the Atlantic slope of the Dominion are both heavily timbered, but the Great Prairies which extend from the Red River Valley to the foothills of the Rocky Mountains are almost treeless, though well grassed and with a soil of unsurpassed fertility.

Eastern Canada, as we have said, has no extensive plains or high mountain ranges. It has, however, a "Height of Land," insignificant in elevation, but of great physical and geological importance. The Laurentian Mountains or Laurentides, as this low and long range is called, really extend from the Atlantic to the shores of the Arctic Ocean. This Laurentian chain forms the water-parting between the basin of the St. Lawrence and those of the rivers flowing into Hudson Bay, except the Churchill and the Saskatchewan, which pierce it and discharge into the Bay. Further north, it forms the "divide" between the Mackenzie on the west and the Coppermine and other rivers on the east.

RIVERS and LAKES.—The splendid rivers and huge lakes of Canada, so easily interconnected by a few canals, form an unrivalled system of inland navigation, and powerfully influence the climate,

1. Eastern Canada, in the following description, is taken as including the Provinces of British Columbia. Ontario, Quebec, New Frunswick, Nova Sotia. Eastern Canada is the great Woodland Region; Eastern Canada is the great Woodland Region; Central Canada is the rast Prairie Country; while Wastern Canada is the rast Prairie Country; while Wastern Canada is the rast Prairie Country; while Wastern Canada is the Mountain Region tricts of Assimitoia, Albertas, Saskatchewan, Athabasca, Keewatiin, and the rest of the North

productions, and trade of the Dominion. No lake system in the world, except perhaps that of Equatorial Africa, approaches the Great Lakes of Canada in magnitude, which, with the mighty St. Lawrence and its tributaries, contain more than one-half of all the fresh water on the globe.

There are four main river systems in the Dominion :--(1) That of the St. Lawrence, in Eastern Canada; (2) that of the Saskatchewan. Nelson, in South Central Canada; (3) that of the Mackenzie Athabasca, in North Central Canada ; and (4) that of the Fraser, in British Columbia.

Of the numerous minor river systems, the principal are the St. John, on the Atlantic Coast, to the south of the St. Lawrence; the Severn, Albany, East Main, and other rivers which discharge into Hudson Bay; the Coppermine and the Great Fish River, in the Arctic Coast region, to the east of the Mackenzie; and the Stikeen and Skeena in British Columbia.

The basin of the ST. LAWRENCE¹ includes not only the broad belt of country drained by the noise stream itself and its tributaries, but also the **GREAT** LAKES,² of which it forms the outlet. These lakes—Superior, Michigan, Huron, Erie, and Ontario—though of immense size (their united area is 90,000 square miles, and exceeds that of Great Britain) have comparatively slight drainage areas, because of the nearness of the "Height of Land" and the southern waterarcs, because of the breams gather almost at their very shores, and flow to feed the Mississippi or the Saskatchewan. In spite of this, the excess of rainfall over evaporation in the basin of the St. Lawrence is so enormous, that the river carries as much water to the sea as the Mississippi, whose drainage area is four times as large. The river and the lakes together contain 12,000 cubic miles of water, or more than one-half the fresh water on the globe. The lakes diminish in size and decrease in altitude from west to east.

In the Great Plains, which extend from Lake Superior to the Arctic Ocean and westward from Hudson Bay to the foot of the Rockies, there is a perfect labyrinth of lakes and watercourses, connected together by cross channels, or separated only by short portages.

In the Saskatchewan-Nelson River System, Lake Winnipeg, an immense sheet of water, 240 miles long and 55 miles wide, is, as it were, the central reservoir, as it receives the great navigable streams of the Red River, the Assimiboine, and the Saskatchewan, besides the overflow from Lakes Manitoba and Winnipegosis, and finds an outlet by the Nelson River into Hudson Bav.

The rest of the Great Central Plain, to the north and west of the rivers already named, belongs to the immense basin of the Athabasca-Mackenzie. The MACKENZIE is by far the largest river in the American section of the Arctic river-system. Measured from the source of either of its main tributaries the Peace River or the Athabasca this great river has a length of not less than 2,500 miles, of which not less than 2,000 miles are navigable for steamboats, while its drainage area, estimated to embrace more than half a million square miles, is double that of the St. Lawrence.

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student should compare the figures given with well-known areas at home. Thus, Lake Superior equals in length the distance from Berwick to Land's End, and has an area very nearly as large so that of Ireland, while the four smaller lake would cover the whole of England and Wales and, with Lake Superior, the whole of Great Britain. The united length of these lakes is 1,400 miles, which is almost 200 miles less than the distance between Galway and St. John's, N.F. 3. Midwy between Lakes Eric and Ontario, the Niagara River is precipitated over the great *Canadian side*, is 178 feet high, and the American Full, 180 feet.

The **Pacific** slope of the Dominion is drained by the Upper Columbia and the **Fraser** in the south, and by tributaries of the **Mackenzie** and the Yukon in the north.

CLIMATE.—The Dominion of Canada, extending from the latitude of the North Cape in Norway to that of Rome, naturally exhibits a great variety of climate. Generally speaking, it is severe and "formidable" in the north, but genial and temperate in the south. The summers in all parts of Canada are finer and hotter than those of England, but the winters are far colder. But in winter the air is dry, bracing, and exhilarating, and the climate of Canada is, on the whole, one of the healthiest and most favourable in the world to the highest development of man.

The Dominion, from its vast extent, has been truly said to possess all the climates of Europe, from the Mediterranean to the Arctic Ocean. In Ontario, the portion enclosed between the Great Lakes, in particular, enjoys a temperate and a delightful climate. In Quebec, the winter is long and severethe St. Lawrence is frozen over and closed to navigation for about 140 days every year. But during the greater part of this time the sky is clear and the cold healthy and invigorating. The Maritime Provinces-New Brunswick, Nova Scotia, and Prince Edward Island-have, of course, a milder and more equable climate; and while Manitoba and the North-West have a "continental" climate-a hot summer being followed by a cold winter, and spring and autumn being of acceedingly brief duration-the coast region of British Columbia possesses an insular climate, having all the advantages of that of England without any of its disadvantages.

PRODUCTIONS.—Immense forests, luxuriant pastures, fertile wheat lands, inexhaustible fisheries, and vast stores of mineral wealth —these are the most important of the rich and varied resources of Canada.

Canada possesses thousands of square miles of the finest forests, and forest products constitute one of her main sources of wealth. Canadian forests are rich in a great variety of the most useful and valuable trees, which yield lumber of many kinds for building purposes, for furniture and, in many parts of Canada, for fuel. Among the varieties are the maple, elm, ash, cherry, beech, hickory, ironwood, pine, spruce, balsam, cedar, hemlock, walnut, oak, builternut, basswood, poplar, chestnut, mountain ash, willow, and black and white birch.

But, besides her magnificent forest trees, the fruit trees of Canada are unsurpassed, and fruit-growing is a very important industry in Eastern Canada. Apples, pears, plums, peaches, apricots, grapes, and berries of every description grow luxuriantly, and attain a size and flavour unknown in Europe.

The wheat lands of Canada possess all the advantages of the regions to the south, but in richness, fortility, and extent, infinitely greater. And not only wheat, but oats, barley, potatoes, and other vegetables come to perfection over the greater part of the settled and cultivable portions of the Dominion.

Animals and their produce are a greater source of wealth to Canada than even her immense forests. All the ordinary **domestic animals** thrive wonderfully on the rich pastures, and *live animals, meat, butter, cheese, eggs, hides, skins, and wool form* the largest items in the exports.

Of wild animals, the bison or buffalo is now almost extinct; the grizzly bear is still found in the Rocky Mountains; the moosedeer, sable, and other furbearing animals are more widely distributed.

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The fisheries: of Canada are the largest in the world, embracing fully 8,000 miles of sea coast, in addition to inland seas, innumerable lakes, and a great number of rivers. Nearly 70,000 men and 30,000 boats are employed in the fisheries, and the annual value of the produce amounts to 31 millions sterling.

Canada is marvellous rich in minerals, and there are vast deposits of coal and iron, with copper, gold, silver, nickel, and other useful metals and minerals. The coalfields of Canada are of immense extent, and many mines on the Atlantic and Pacific coasts, and in the North-West and the Rocky Mountains, are actively worked.

INHABITANTS.—Canada had, in 1891, a total population of over 4² millions, which is a small number for so large and richlyendowed a country.

The great bulk of the population are of British descent, except in the case of Quebec, where the majority are of French origin-descendants of the settlers in Canada prior to its falling under the rule of Great Britain in 1763. The *Indians* are comparatively few in number, only about 123,000. A few tribes of Eskimo live along the Arctic Coast from the mouth of the Mackenzie to Labrador.

About 21 millions of the people are Protestants, and nearly 2 millions are Roman Catholics. In no country in the world is education so generally diffused.

INDUSTRIES.—Canada is mainly an agricultural and pastoral country, largely covered with forests, the produce of which, until recently, formed the chief source of wealth and the most important item of export. Fishing and mining are also important industries, but manufactures, which are chiefly connected with the main industries, are as yet in their infancy.

The industries of Canada include the cultivation of the soil and the growing of enormous quantities of wheat and other cereals, and of all kinds of fruits and vegetables; the rearing of cattle, sheep, and horses; and the manufacture of cheese and butter on a very large scale.

Trade.-The trade of Canada is larger than that of any other British Colony, and is mainly carried on with the United States and the United Annual value, about 45 millions sterling. Kingdom.

Ports.-The chief ports of Canada are Halifax in Nova Scotia, St. John in New Brunswick, Quebec and Montreal on the St. Lawrence, Ottawa on the Ottawa River, Toronto on Lake Ontario, and Vancouver and Victoria in British Columbia. Canada stands *fifth* among maritime countries in tonnage of shipping owned and registered in the country. Over 65,000 vessels—about 70 per cent. of the whole under the British flag—enter and leave Canadian ports every year.

Canals.-The canals of Canada and the river improvements are works of immense importance, which have largely increased the trade of the country.ª

Railways.—Canada has about 14,000 miles of railway open for traffic, and about 4,000 miles in course of construction or arranged for. The three principal

 1. Cod is the most abundant and valuable catch on the Atlantic Coast, and salmon on the Pracific Coast. Over 20 millions its, of salmon are canned every year on the Fraser River in in the levels of the Great Lawrence and the Strate of Lawrence and the Strate of Lawrence and the Strate of the

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systems are the Canadian Pacific Bailway (5,186 miles), the Grand Trunk Bailway (3,114 miles), and the Inter-Colonial Bailway (894 miles).¹

GOVERNMENT.—The Government of Canada is Federal. The executive authority of and over the Dominion is vested in the Queen. in whose name the Governor-General, aided by a Privy Council, carries on the government. The legislative power is vested in a Parliament, consisting of an Upper House, called the Senate, and a House of Commons. The political capital and seat of the Federal Government is OTTAWA.²

The ordinary public Revenue amounts to about 8 millions, and the ordinary public Expenditure to 74 millions. The Public Debt, which amounts to nearly 49 millions sterling, has been chiefly incurred in the construction of railways, canals, and other public works.

With the exception of a garrison of 2,000 men at Halifax, there are no Imperial troops in the Dominion. The colonial forces comprise an active volunteer and marine militia of about 37,000 men. The total number of men, liable to be called on for active service, exceeds a million.

-Each of the provinces forming the Dominion has a separate Parliament, with a Lieutenant-Governor, appointed by the Governor-General, at the head of the Executive.

DIVISIONS.-The Dominion of Canada is a confederation of seven Provinces-Ontario, Quebec, Nova Scotia, New Brunswick, Prince Edward Island, Manitoba, and British Columbia: four Districts — Assiniboia, Saskatchewan, Alberta, and Athábasca, which together form the North-West Province; together with the district of Keewatin, and two Territories-the North-West Territory to the west, and the North-East Territory to the south and east, of Hudson Bay.

THE MARITIME PROVINCES of Canada include Nova Scotia, the most easterly Province of the Dominion, and the adjoining Provinces of New Brunswick and Prince Edward Island.

1. NOVA SCOTIA.—The Province of Nova Scotia^{*} includes the peninsula of Nova Scotia and the island of Cape Breton, which together have an area of over 20,000 square miles-one-fifth of which is covered with lakes and small rivers-and a population of about half a million.

(1.) Nova Scotia is united to New Brunswick by the narrow and fertile Isthmus of Chignecto, and is divided from Prince Edward Island by Northumber-land Strait, and from Cape Breton Island by the Gut of Canso. Cape Breton Island⁴ is nearly bisected by a remarkable fiord, the Bras d'Or. The coasts of both these divisions are indented by numerous inlets, some of which form magnificent harbours.

(2.) Both Nova Scotia and Cape Breton contain an abundance of valuable

^{1.} Or 1.227 miles including the Prince Edward Island Railway. 2. Canada is said to have been discovered in 1477 by Sebastian Cabot, but its history dates only from 1534, when the French took possession of the country. Quebeo-the first settlement-was founded by them in 1068. A series of ware be-tween the English settlers in the New England States and the Franch Canadians culminated in 1766 in the capture of Quebeo by Wolfe, and the subsequent cession of the whole territory to Great Britain by the Treaty of Paris (1763).

^{8.} Nova Scotia was discovered by Cabot in 1497, and was colonised by the Franch. It was taken or retaken four times by the English, and was finally coded to England by the Treaty of Utrecht (713).
4. Cope Breton Jeland was also discovered by Cabot in 1497. The fourtrees of Louiseburg, on the south-east coast, was taken by the English in 1788, and the island was finally coded to Great British by the Treaty of Paris (1768).

timber, but the Province is chiefly famous for its coal mines. Iron ore and gypsum are plentiful, and some gold is produced. Fruit-growing, dairyfarming and stock-breeding are gradually progressing, but the chief industries at present are mining, lumbering, and fishing. The climate is not so rigorous as that of Cauada Proper, and is remarkably healthy. Halifax and the other ports on the eastern coast are open all the year round, while the St. Lawrence to the north is annually frozen over. The people are mainly of British or French descent, but there are a few thousand coloured people and some two thousand Indians.

(3) The Provincial Government is administered by a Lieutenant-Governor, aided by an Executive and a Legislative Council and a Legislative Assembly. The principal *towns* are Halifax and Sydney. **HALIFAX** (42), the capital of the Province, is distinguished chiefly for its fine harbour, and is the principal winter port of Canada, with all parts of which it is connected by rail. It is also the chief British naval station and the headquarters of the British Army in North America. Sydney, the chief town of Cape Breton Island, has a considerable trade, chiefly in coal, but fishing is the main industry of the islanders.

2. **NEW BRUNSWICK**¹ borders on the south-western side of the Gulf of St. Lawrence, and is bounded on the *south* by the Bay of Fundy, on the *east* by the State of Maine, and on the *north* by the extreme south-eastern portion of the Province of Quebec. The Province has an *area* of 27,300 square miles, and a population of about 400,000.

(1.) The boundary between New Brunswick and Quebec is formed by the River Restigouche, which flows into Chaleur Bay, an inlet of the Gulf of St. Lawrence. On the west, the River St. John, a straight line from the Grand Falls of the St. John to the Chiputneticook Lakes, and thence the River St. Croiz, which flows into Passamaguoddy Bay (an inlet of the Bay of Fundy), divide this Province from the State of Maine. On the south, the boundary is formed by the Bay of Fundy and Chigneto Bay, and a line drawn across the Isthmus of Chigneeto, which unites New Brunswick and Nova Scotia.

(2.) The chief physical feature of New Brunswick is the **Eiver St. John** (400 miles long), which is navigable for small vessels to FREDERICTON (85 miles inland), and for boats to the Grand Falls, 200 miles from the sea. The valley of the St. John forms a narrow and, on the whole, level plain, rising in the east into a plateau of considerable height, which extends to the level belt along the east coast. North of the uplands, the country is drained by the **Miramichi** (which enters **Miramichi Bay**) and the **Bestigouche**.

(3.) Both the uplands and the valleys are covered with magnificent forests of pine and other woods, and the produce of the forest forms the chief export. Agriculture is also much attended to in the lower districts—the *intervale* lands along the rivers are extraordinarily fortile—but, next to the forests, the chief wealth of the Province lies in its valuable **fisheries**, in which over 10,000 men are employed. Shipbuilding is also an important industry.

(4.) The people are mainly of British descent, but there are many descendants of the old French settlers and a few Indians. The Government is administered by a Lieutenant-Governor, aided by an Executive Council, and a Legislative Council and Assembly.

(5.) The chief towns are Fredericton and St. John. FREDERICTON (8), the capital of New Brunswick, stands on the River St. John, 80 miles above its mouth; but the town of St. John (50, including Portland), at the outlet of the river into the Bay of Fundy, is much more populous and commands the chief share in the maritime trade of the Province.

^{1.} New Brunswick was colonised by the French | of Acadia until 1713, when it was ceded to in 1673, and formed part of the French colony | England.

3. **PRINCE EDWARD ISLAND**¹ is within the southern portion of the **Gulf of St. Lawrence**, and lies opposite the shores of Nova Scotia and New Brunswick, from which it is divided by **Northum** berland Strait. The island, which is 130 miles long and 34 miles broad, is the smallest of the Canadian Provinces, being a little over 2,000 square miles in area, with a population of 115,000.

(1.) The coasts of Prince Edward Island are so deeply indented that no part of it is more than 8 miles from the sea. The interior is, on the whole, level, and is still largely covered with forests. The soil of the cleared districts is very fertile, and agriculture is the chief industry. Unlike the adjoining provinces of Nova Scotia and New Brunswick, its mineral productions are unimportant. The fisheries, however, are valuable, and large numbers of *horses* and *cattle* are reared. The climate is extremely healthy, and it is no unusual thing on this favoured island to find people who have reached the age of a hundred years, without having known a day's illness.

(2.) The Provincial Government is similar to that of the other Provinces of Canada. A railway runs right through the island connecting all the chief places with **Charlottetown**, the capital and chief port.

4. QUEBEC.^{*}—The Province of QUEBEC includes that portion of the St. Lawrence valley which is towards the mouth of the river and below the junction of the Ottawa. On the north, this Province is bounded by James Bay, the East Main River, and the Esquimaux River; and on the west by the Ottawa River, which divides it from the Province of Ontario. South of the St. Lawrence, the boundary between Quebec and the United States is marked partly by the 45th parallel, the Green Mountains, and the rivers St. John and St. Croix. In the extreme east, the River Restigouche and Chaleur Bay divide it from New Brunswick.

(1.) The area is over 250,000 square miles, and the perimeter of the whole Province is about 3,000 miles, 740 miles of which are sea-coast and 2,260 miles land frontier. The island of Anticosti—a large uncultivated island, 145 miles long and 80 miles broad, in the Gulf of St. Lawrence, with the Magdalen Islands, a barren group also in the Gulf, belong to Quebec. The population of this vast Province is only about 1½ millions, an average of only 6 persons per square mile.

(2.) The great natural features of Quebec are the St. Lawrence and its tributaries, of which the principal are the Ottawa, St. Maurice, and Saguenay on the left bank, and the Bichelieu, St. Francis, and Chaudière on the right. The northern affluents either rise in, or are connected with, a labyrinth of lakes, of which the most extensive is Lake St. John, drained by the Saguenay. Of the southern tributaries, the Richelieu rises in *Lake Champlain*, which is within the United States. The "Height of Land" forms the limit of the Lower St. Lawrence basin on the north.

(3.) South of the St. Lawrence, the country is for the most part level, fertile, and well cultivated, and, except in the extreme east, well peopled. North of the St. Lawrence, the settled and cultivated districts are confined to a narrow belt along the river between the mouths of the Ottawa and the Saguenay. North and east of the latter, the climate is so severe that cultivation is impossible. In the cultivated districts, large quantities of wheat, &c., are grown, but the chief wealth of the Province lies in its vast forests and productive fisheries.

^{1.} Prince Edward Island was discovered by Cabot in 1477; taken by the English 1758; finally Canada East or Lower Canada.

(4.) More than three-fourths of the people of Quebec: are descendants of the old French settlers, for Quebec was originally settled by, and long remained a valued possession of, France. Though they still adhere to their language and faith, the French inhabitants are intensely Canadian, and, since the union of the provinces, have lived in perfect harmony with their neighbours of British descent. The English portion of the Province is almost limited to the Eastern Townships, which lie close to Vermont and the United States frontier, and were originally settled by English Loyalists, who left the United States at the time of the War of Independence. The Government is vested in a Lieutenant-Governor, who is appointed by the Governor-General, and an Executive Council and two Legislative Chambers.

(5.) The principal towns are Quebec, Montreal, and Three Rivers. QUEBEC (65), the capital of the Province and the former capital of all Canada, stands on the north bank of the River St. Lawrence, in a commanding position, and is the seat of a very large timber trade.³ MONTREAL (200), further up the St. Lawrence, is situated on an island in the river, immediately below the junction of the Ottawa. It is by far the largest town in Canada, and has a very large trade and considerable manufactures. Three Rivers, at the confinence of the St. Maurice and the St. Lawrence, has a large lumber trade.

5. ONTABIO. - The most populous and wealthy Province in the Dominion, lies between Quebec on the east, the North-East Territory and James Bay on the north, and the Great Lakes on the south. It extends from east to west for nearly 1,100 miles, and from north to south for 700 miles, and has an area of 223,000 square milesnearly four times as large as England and Wales—and a population of 2¹/₈ millions.

(1.) This Province is divided from Quebec by the Ottawa River, and from the North-East Territory by the Albany River, which flows into James Bay, the southern extension of Hudson Bay. Between Ontario and the United States are the Upper St. Laurence, Lake Ontario, Niagara River, Lake Brie, the River Detroit, Lake St. Clair, the River St. Clair, Lake Huron, the River St. Mary, and Lake Superior. Of the rivers running north, besides the Albany, the longest are the *Moose* and *Abittibi Rivers*, the latter flowing from a lake of the same name. Of the numerous lakes in the interior, the chief are *Lake* Nipigon in the west, and Lake Nipissing in the east.

(2.) The settled portion of Ontario is enclosed by the Ottawa and the St. Lawrence, and Lakes Ontario, Erie, and Huron. The rest of the country to the north and west is covered with immense forests of pine, beech, oak, &c. Formerly, the whole Province was forest-covered, and lumbering then formed the only occupation of the colonists. The extent of land under cultivation, however, has enormously increased within the last few years, and agriculture is now the chief industry in the southern counties. The vast mineral re-sources of the country are being actively developed. Iron, lead, copper, gold, silver, tin, nicked, and other metals are found in the neighbourhood of the Great Leas. The satisfier malle of the metal are found in the neighbourhood of the Great Lakes. The petroleum wells of the peninsular portion of the Province are extremely productive.

(8.) The population has rapidly increased within recent years, and the people are mostly of British descent, but there are several thousand German and Dutch settlers, and about 18,000 Indians. The Provincial Government is The Provincial Government is

1. There are 13,600 Indians in the Province. 2. Quebec is frequently called the "dibratar of America." Its fortifications are considered impregnable. The victory gained by the gallant Wolfe, in 1709, on the *Plains of Abrakam*, im-mediately outside the town, ensured the trans-ter of Canada from French to English rule, and

preserves to Quebec a conspicuous place in the page of history. 5. The Grand Trunk Railway crosses the St. Lawrence at Montreal by the famous *Victoria Bridos*, the longest tubular bridge in the world. 4. Ontario was formerly called Canada West or Upper Canada. In 1794, the total population only amounted to 68,000.

similar to that of Quebec, and is administered by a Lieutenant-Governor. aided by an Executive and a Legislative Council. For administrative purposes, the Province is divided into 96 counties.

(4.) The principal towns of the Province are Ottawa, Toronto, and Kingston. OTTAWA (45), the Federal capital, lies on the River Ottawa, 90 miles above its junction with the St. Lawrence. It is also the centre of the Ontario *lumber*trade, and its saw-mills are the largest in Canada. TORONTO (175), the Provincial capital, on the north-west shore of Lake Ontario, is, however, the largest city of Upper Canada. The "Queen City of the West," as Toronto is called, has great shipping interests on the lakes, and is the chief centre of the industries and trade of the Province. Kingston (16) is situated at the outlet of the St. Lawrence from Lake Ontario. Of the smaller towns, the most important are Hamilton (45), the "Birmingham" of Canada, on Burlington Bay (Lake Ontario), and London (27), on the River Thames, which flows into Lake St. Clair.

6. MANITOBA.—The Province of Manitoba is situated in the very centre of the continent, being midway between the Atlantic and the Pacific Oceans on the east and west, and the Arctic Ocean and the Gulf of Mexico on the north and south. It has an area of over 60,000 square miles and a population of over 125,000.

(1.) The **climate** of Manitoba, as the Marquis of Lorne remarked, has honest heat in summer and honest cold in winter; but, in spite of the extreme tem-peratures, the summers are very pleasant and the winters most enjoyable, the dry cold air being bracing and invigorating. The soil is a deep, rich, vegetable mould—the product of centuries of crops of grass which have grown, seeded, and withered on the prairie—and yields the finest and heaviest wheat in the world. Other grains and vegetables grow equally well, and horses, cattle, and sheep thrive on the nutritious prairie grasses.

(2.) Manitoba had no railway communication with the outside world until 1878; it is now traversed by the **Canadian Pacific Railway**, which passes through WINNIPEG,¹ the capital of the province, POETAGE LA PRAIRIE, and BRANDON-the three largest of its towns. Winnipeg now has 30,000 inhabitants-in 1870 it had only 300.

KEEWATIN .- The district of KEEWATIN, which is under the government of Manitoba, extends along the western side of Hudson Bay, to the north of the "prairie province."

7. THE NORTH-WEST TERRITORIES embrace a vast region, which stretches from Manitoba to the Rocky Mountains and the Arctic Ocean. It is bounded on the south by the 49th parallel of North latitude, which divides it from the United States.

The basin of the Saskatchewan is the most fertile and valuable portion of these territories. Extensive forests, alternating with tracts of prairie-land, cover the southern division of this great region, which becomes colder with each succeeding parallel of latitude, until it passes, towards the extreme north, into a dreary and barren wilderness.

The fur-bearing animals, which have their homes in this extensive region,

^{1.} Winnipeg is 1.432 miles west of Montreal, or | Canadian domain. Yet, Manitoba is only in the about 200 miles further than Madeira from Lon-don, and the creation of the Province of Manitoba at so great a distance from the old province is becom the east.—Greawell's Geography of Canada. another illustration of the immentary of our |

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formerly supplied its sole produce of value, and the collection of their skins forms the object for which it is still frequented by the servants of the Hudson Bay Company. But it has immense capabilities of another description. Large portions of it abound in mineral deposits; and there are extensive tracts well suited for the purposes of agricultural settlement, which have within recent years attracted a large population, while, along the Canadian Pacific Railway and on the banks of the chief rivers, towns and villages are springing up with wonderful rapidity.

Four Provisional Districts have been formed out of the North-West Territories, namely, Saskatchewan, Assiniboia, Alberta, and Athabasca.

These Districts are at present under the rule of a Lieutenant-Governor and Council. The capital and seat of government is REGINA, on the Canadian Pacific Railway, in the District of Assiniboia.

ASSINIBOIA, which lies between Manitoba and Alberta and adjoins the United States on the south, has an area of 95,000 square miles, or nearly twice that of England. Many towns and villages have sprung up along the line of the *Canadian Pacific Railway*, which traverses the district from east to west. Among these may be mentioned Broadview, Indian Head, Qu'Appelle, EEGINA (the capital of the district), Moose Jaw, Swift Current, and Medicine Hat.

SASKATCHEWAN is an immense district, 114,000 square miles in extent, situated to the north of Assiniboia and Manitoba, and traversed by the two branches of the great Saskatchewan River. This vast district has immense resources. **PRINCE ALBERT**, on the North Saskatchewan River, is the capital.

ALBERTA has an area of about 100,000 square miles, and is bounded on the south by the **United States**, on the east by the Districts of **Assinibols** and **Saskatchewan**, on the *morth* by the District of **Athabasca**, and on the west by **British Columbia**, from which it is separated by the main ridge of the Rocky Mountains. This district is not only rich in agricultural resources, but there are in it **immense coalifelds** (worked to some extent at Lethbridge on the Belly River, and on the main line of the Canadian Pacific Railway, near **Banff**, in the recently-formed National Park). **CALGABY**, on the Bow River, is the chief town.

ATHABASCA comprises an area of 122,000 square miles, and is bounded on the south by Alberta, on the west by British Columbia, and on the north and east by the as yet unorganised territories of the North-West. DUNVEGAN, on the Peace River, is the chief settlement, and there are numerous trading posts of the Hudson Bay Company and several mission stations in the district.

... THE NORTH-EAST TERRITORY embraces the country bordering on the southern and eastern shores of Hudson Bay.

8. **BRITISH COLUMBIA**, the westernmost Province of the Dominion, is also the largest and yet the least populous. Its area, including **Vancouver**, **Queen Charlotte**, and other islands along the coast, is about 357,000 square miles, or 6 times that of England and Wales, but the population does not exceed 100,000, of whom only about 80,000 are whites, the rest being Indians and Chinese.

The **natural features** of British Columbia are extremely diversified. A deeply indented coast-line fringed with hundreds of islands, lofty mountains, numerous rivers and lakes, long, narrow, well grassed valleys, with dense forests of gigantic pines, combine to make this province the most picturesque portion of the continent.

Physically, British Columbia may be divided into four districts :---(1) the islands. (2) the mountains along the coast of the mainland. (3) the high interior plateau, and (4) the lofty mountain ranges that rise along the eastern border.

Of the resources of British Columbia it may be said that it has magnificent forests, while in the rich valley of the Lower Fraser, and on the south and east coasts of Vancouver Island, the soil is exceedingly fertile, and the climate is favourable to agriculture and fruit-growing. In the interior, also, the soil is, over very considerable areas (far exceeding in the aggregate the arable area of the coast region), as fertile as the best on the coast, but the climate is so dry in summer that irrigation is necessary, except in a few favoured localities. As regards pasture, the interior as a whole is probably unequalled for horse and cattle ranches. About 5,000 or 6,000 square miles of the Peace River district of British Columbia is also of considerable agricultural value.

The fisheries are as rich as those of Eastern Canada. The salmon of British Columbia is famous the world over. Millions of them make their way up the rivers, and the annual take from the Fraser River alone is over 10 million lbs. Sturgeons are numerous; halibut abound off Queen Charlotte Island; cod and seals are caught on the north coast; while the colachan or candle fish enters the Fraser and the Nasse rivers and other streams by the million, for several weeks.

Minerals, however, form the chief wealth of the Province. As for gold, there is scarcely a stream in which the colour of gold cannot be found, and paying mines extend through a region of some 600 miles in length. The largest mines are in the *Cariboo* district, whence 10 millions starling have been obtained as in the cast of Vancenver Island, and there are inexhaustible deposits of iron ore on Texada Island and elsewhere.

The principal torons are VICTORIA, the provincial capital, which is picturesquely situated on a lovely harbour on the south-east coast of Vancouver Island, and has about 24,000 inhabitants; Vancouver (16), on the southern side of Burrard Inlet, the terminal port of the Canadian Pacific Railway, connected by a magnificent line of steamers with Yokohama and Hong-Kong; and New Westminster (8), a growing river-port, very pleasantly situated on the Fraser River about 8 miles above its mouth and 12 miles from Vancouver.

QUESTIONS ON THE DOMINION OF CANADA.

1. What portion of the North American Con-tinent is included within the Dominion of Canada?

2. Give some idea of its extent. How is the Dominion bounded? 3. What are the characteristic features in the relief of Canada?

relief of Canada? 4. Name and trace the courses of the principal rivers of Canada. How many of the great lakes are parily within Canada? 5. Where are the Falls of Ningara? Between what two lakes does the Frier Ningara flow? 6. Give some account of the climate of Canada. 7. What are the chief natural resources of the

Dominion?

8. What do you know concerning the people of Canada, as to their origin and industrial pur-

9. What is the form of government in Oanada? 9. What is the form of government in Oanada? Name the Provinces and Territories included in the Dominion. 10. When was Canada discovered? Who were

the first settlers? When did Canada become a British possession?

11. Describe briefly the maritime Provinces of Canada.

12. State what you know of the Province of Quebec.

18. By what event is Quebec historically dis-tinguished?

tinguished?
14. Give some particulars as to the natural festures, climate, and productions, and the industries and chief towns of Ontaries of Manitobat?
16. What are the boundaries of Manitobat?
16. Indicate the position of Keewatin and the North-West Territories. Name the four Provision of Statement Provis

North-West Territories. Name the four Provi-sional Districts that have been formed out of the North-West Territories. 17. Where is the North-East Territory. 18. Give some account of the natural features and productions of British Columbia. 19. What city is the terminus of the Canadian Pacific Railway. Name the capital and other important towns in the province.

THE UNITED STATES.

THE UNITED STATES embrace the middle portion of North America, extending from the Atlantic to the Pacific, and from the Great Lakes to the Gulf of Mexico and the Rio Grande del Norte, together with the detached Territory of Alaska, which forms the north-western portion of the continent.

BOUNDARIES.—This vast country is bounded on the *north* by the Dominion of Canada, on the *south* by Mexico and the Gulf of Mexico, on the *east* by the Atlantic, and on the *west* by the Pacific. Alaska is surrounded by the sea, except on the east, where it adjoins the Dominion of Canada.

The International Boundary between the United States and Canada is partly natural and partly artificial. The Great Lakes and the Upper St. Lawrence divide the United States from Eastern Canada, but from the Lake of the Woods to the shores of the Gulf of Georgia, the boundary between Central and Western Canada and the United States is entirely artificial, being formed by the 49th parallel of North latitude. Alaska has been already described (see p. 816); the following description is therefore confined to the States and Territories to the south of the Dominion of Canada.

EXTENT.—The total *area* of the United States is more than 3,000,000 square miles, which is nearly as large as that of Europe and 60 times the size of England.

The average length of this great Republic is 2,500 miles, and its average breadth is 1,800 miles. Its greatest length, from Cape Cod to the shores of the Pacific, is about 2,800 miles, or 7 times the distance from Berwick to Land's End. Its greatest breadth, from the southern extremity of Texas to the borders of Canada, is about 1,600 miles, or rather more than 5 times the distance from Lowestoft Ness to St. David's Head.

COASTS.—The eastern coast is, on the whole, irregular ; the western coast is, on the contrary, regular and unbroken by any considerable inlets. The total length amounts to 12,000 miles, equal to an average of 1 mile of coast to every 240 miles of area.

Of this extent, much the larger proportion—about *five-sixths*—belongs to the **Atlantic** and the **Gulf of Mexico**, while the coast-line on the **Pacific** is only about *one-sixth* of the whole.

1. Capes.—The chief capes are Cod, May, Charles, and Hatteras on the east ; Sable on the south ; Flattery, Blanco, Mendocino, and Conception on the voest.

2. Inlets.-The principal openings are Delaware and Chesapeake Bays on the east; the Gulf of Mexico with Tampa, Pensacola, Mobile, and Galveston Bays on the south; and San Francisco Bay and Puget Sound on the west.

3. Channels and Straits.—Long Island Sound, between Long Island and the mainland; Pamlico Sound, on the coast of North Carolina; the Strait of Florida, between Florida and the Bahamas; and Juan de Fuca Strait, between Vancouver Island and the State of Washington.

4. Islands.—Rhode Island and Long Island on the east, and San Juan and other islands on the west.

RELIEF.—The great natural features of the United States are (1) a great elevated plateau, traversed by lofty mountain ranges and occupying the western half of the country; (2) a vast lowland, lying east of this plateau and bounded on the west by (3) a system of minor elevations which slope into (4) a low and narrow plain, extending along the eastern coast.

The first is known as the **Cordilleran Plateau** or the Pacific Highlands; the second includes the **Great Plains** and the **Mississippi Valley**; the third forms the **Appalachian Mountain System** or the Atlantic Highlands; and the fourth is the **Atlantic Coast Plain**, which merges into the Gulf Coast Plain and the Valley of the Mississippi.

The principal natural features of the country from the Pacific Coast to the Atlantic, are, first, the **Coast Banges**, which skirt the shores of the Pacific from Cape Flattery southwards, and are divided by a long and narrow depression through which the *Sacramento* and its tributary the *San Joaquin* flow from the much loftier **Sierra Nevada**, which with the **Cascade Range** (divided from the Coast Range by the *Willamette River* and *Puget Sound*) further north, marks the western limit of the **Pacific Highlands**. These great uplands extend eastwards to the Rocky Mountains and are divided by the **Wasatch Mountains** into two portions—the **Great Basin** on the west and the **Colorado Flateau** on the east. To the east of the lofty ranges of the **Bocky Mountains**, the **Great Plains** slope gradually down into the **Mississippi Valley** and the basin of the **Great Lakes**—a vast lowland, generally quite level and uniform, and broken only by the **Ozark Hills** in Southern Missouri, and a low water-parting, separating the waters of the Mississippi from those of Lake Superior and Lake Michigan. To the east of this great Central **Plain**, the land again rises, but the short ridges and isolated groups of the **Appala**chian **Mountains** nowhere exceed 7,000 feet, or leas than half the height of the loftier summits of the Rocky Mountains. From these highlands the country slopes gradually to the shores of the Atlantic. This **Atlantic Coast Flain** is narrow in the north, but broadens out towards the south, and is continued along the Guif Coast into the Great Central Plain.

The Rocky Mountains consist of a double and sometimes triple line of ranges, in which scores of summits exceed 14,000 feet in height, while hundreds of peaks rise above 13,000 feet. But, lofty though the Rocky Mountains are, the Sierra Nevada and the Cascade Mountains are higher and more massive. Near the southern extremity of the Sierra Nevada is *Mount Whitney*, 14,878 feet in height, the loftiest mountain in the United States.

BIVERS.—The main water-parting of the United States follows the ranges and plateaux of the Rocky Mountains—the eastern slope being drained into the Gulf of Mexico or directly into the Atlantic, while the western slope, with the exception of the *Great Basin*, which has no outlet to the ocean, is drained into the Pacific.

There are thus three river systems—(1) the **Atlantic System**, which includes the rivers which enter the Mexican Gulf as well as those which flow directly into the Atlantic; (2) the **Pacific System**; and (3) the **Continental System** of the Great Basin.

The Atlantic System, or rather the United States Section of the Atlantic River System, includes part of the *St. Lawrence*, the only great North American river flowing directly into the Atlantic, together with the numerous rivers which drain the Atlantic Coast Plain, and the *Mississippi* and other rivers which discharge into the Gulf of Mexico. The Mississippi is by far the most important river in North America, which, with the single exception of the Amazon in South America, surpasses every other river on the globe, both in length and area of drainage. The other more important rivers of the Atlantic System are the Hudson, Delaware, Susquehanna, James, Roanoke, Savannah, and Allamaha.

The **Pacific System** is, as a whole, inferior to that of the Atlantic, and the United States Section of it includes only three rivers of any magnitude, the *Columbia*, the *Sacramento*, and the *Colorado*.

The **Continental System** includes the streams that discharge into the lakes or 'sinks' of the Great Basin, none of which have any outlet to the ocean. Of these, the principal are the *Humboldt River*, the *Bear River*, and the *Jordan*.

LAKES.—Lake Michigan and Great Salt Lake are the largest lakes in the United States.

Lake Michigan is the only one of the Great Lakes belonging to the St. Lawrence Basin that is wholly within the United States. The other four lakes— Superior, Huron, Erie, and Ontario—are partly within Canada. Lake Champlain is almost entirely to the south of the International Boundary. The Great Salt Lake of Utah is the largest lake to the west of the Rocky Mountains.

CLIMATE.—So vast a territory as that of the United States necessarily comprehends a great variety of climate, but the greater part of the country may be said to enjoy a temperate climate, the mean annual temperature being 53° F., or a little higher than that of London.

But although the average temperature is not much greater than that of the British Isles, the extremes of summer and winter temperature are much more considerable, and the northern portion of the Atlantic seaboard and the Great Central Plain have intensely hot summers and extremely severe winters. Towards the south, and especially along the shores of the Gulf of Mexico, the heat of summer is very great, but the winters there are also mild.

PRODUCTIONS.—The natural resources of this great territory are abundant and varied. The United States include many of the most productive and fertile portions of the American continent. Their mineral wealth is great, and their agricultural capabilities are almost boundless.

None of the plants that produce the great staples of commerce are natives of the United States, but *wheat* and other cereals and many valuable plants have been introduced and are extensively cultivated.

The larger native wild animals, such as the *bison* or American buffalo, the *bear*, *ellc*, moose, *bcc.*, have almost disappeared. Immense numbers of **domestic animals** are now reared in all parts of the country, especially on the Great Plains and grass-lands to the east of the Rockies.

The mineral wealth of the United States is enormous. Exhaustless mines of gold and silver in the Western Highlands, with vast deposits of coal, iron, copper, lead, petroleum, and other valuable minerals in the eastern half of the country, in addition to immense agricultural resources, give the United States advantages unequalled by those of any other country on the globe.

INHABITANTS.—The population of the United States amounted, in 1890, to over 621 millions, an average of 21 per square mile, or less than one-twenty-fifth of the density in England.

A hundred years ago, the United States had less than 4 millions of people, now it has 16 times as many. "No other country has ever increased in population so rapidly. The wilderness has given place to thriving farms; small hamlets have grown into great cities. Much of this rapid growth is due to im-

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migration. Several millions, attracted by the superior advantages of the United States, have flocked thither from the Old World, particularly from Ireland and Diates, have nonzed thitner from the Old World, particularly from Ireland and Germany, so that one-eighth of the population are of foreign birth." The people of the United States are, however, essentially British, and, until the great increase in immigration from Germany and other countries, the people were almost entirely of British origin. Out of the total population of 68 millions, about 554 millions, or five-sixths of the whole, are whites, and of these nearly seven-eighths are native-born. The coloured population includes about 7 million pages a most of whom are found in the Scather States that the million negroes, most of whom are found in the Southern States, where they were slaves until 1865, when slavery was abolished. Only 250,000 Indians are left within the whole of this immense territory. There are also about 100,000 Chinese, mostly in the towns on the Pacific Coast.

Education is general and well advanced, especially in the North-Eastern or New England States. Common schools are maintained at the public expense, and there are a great number of higher schools and colleges. The oldest university (Harvard) was founded in 1636.

Religion .- There is no established form of religion in the United States. The various forms of Christianity are represented by numerous followers, and the members of each church support their ministers by voluntary contributions.

INDUSTRIES.—Agriculture, manufactures, and mining are the chief industries in the United States, and the produce of the field, the factory, and the mine, exceeds in value the industrial products of any other country.

Agriculture is the leading industry, and employs nearly one-half of the labour of the country. The soil of the eastern half of the country, especially in the Mississippi Valley, is, for the most part, remarkably fertile, and the yield of agricultural products is enormous; after home wants are supplied, large quan-tities remain for export. For cotton and grain, the United States are the chief source of supply to the countries that need them.

Immense numbers of cattle, swine, sheep, and horses are reared, and enor-mous quantities of butter and cheese, wool, &c., are produced, while millions of animals are annually slaughtered for the markets.

Manufactures are chiefly carried on in the eastern part of the country, and principally in the New England States-New York and Pennsylvania. Mining employs a very large number of people, both in the eastern part of the country, where most of the coal and iron mines slate quarries, mines of lead, copper, zinc, &c., are situated, and also in the Western States, where gold and silver are found. Fishing also employs a considerable number of people, principally on the Atlantic coast. Lumbering is a most important industry in several of the Eastern States and also in the Pacific States, large portions of which are still covered by natural forests.

Commerce.-The commerce of the United States is of vast magnitude, and it is increasing so rapidly that the country must soon become the foremost commercial nation in the world. In foreign commerce, the United States is surpassed only by Great Britain and Germany, while the domestic commerce, or internal trade of the country, is much larger and more important than its foreign trade.1

The foreign commerce of the United States is carried on with all parts of the world, but chiefly with Western Europe (principally with Great Britain), South America, the West Indies, China, and Japan. About one-half of the foreign

^{1.} The trade with Great Britain amounts to 127 millions starling a year, or considerably more than one-third of the entire foreign commerce of the United States is sent to Great Britain, while one-fourth of the imports comes from that the country, which, in 1890, amounted to 335

trade centres in the port of NEW YORK; the other half is carried on mainly through the ports of BOSTON, the chief port of the New England States; NEW ORLEANS, the great Gulf port and commercial capital of the Southern States ; SAN FRANCISCO, the commercial metropolis of the Pacific Coast ; PHILADELPHIA, at the head of Delaware Bay ; BALTIMORE, on Chesapeake Bay ; SAVANNAH, in Georgia ; GALVESTON, in Texas ; CHARLESTON, in South Carolina ; PORTLAND, in Maine ; and MOBILE, in Alabama.

The chief exports are cotton and cotton goods ; wheat, wheat flour, maize, and provisions (comprising meat and dairy products); wheat, wheat, token, maize, and provisions (comprising meat and dairy products); mineral oils, tobacco, and cigars; timber, iron, steel, and copper; cattle, leather, &c. Total value, in 1890, 1714 millions sterling. Most of the general exports are sent out through New York. The cotton ports are New Orleans, Savannah, Charleston, Galveston, and Mobile. Richmond is a great tobacco port.

Most of the sea-borne trade of the United States is carried on in foreign vessels, chiefly British, and the proportion of the trade carried in American ships is continually decreasing, and now amounts to less than one-eighth of the whole.

The railway system of the United States is colossal, and about 170,000 miles are now in operation-a mileage nearly 7 times the circumference of the earth, and exceeding that of the whole of Europe. In the eastern division of the country the railways are very close and intricate, and several lines extend entirely across the continent from the Atlantic Ocean to the Pacific.

The rivers and canals of the United States are estimated to afford not less than 50,000 miles of navigable waterways, on which thousands of steamers ply.

GOVERNMENT.—The United States form a Federal Republic. Each of the States composing the Union has its own Government, while the whole unite in a general Government for the purposes of the Union at large.

The Federal Government of the United States is based on the Constitution of 1787, with amendments subsequently made. By the Constitution, the na-tional Government is entrusted to three separate authorities, the **Executive**, the **Legislative**, and the **Judicial**. The *Executive* is vested in the **President**, who is elected for four years, but is re-eligible to office, and is ex officio Commander-in-Chief of the land and sea forces. The Legislative power belongs to an elective Congress, consisting of a Senate composed of two Senators from each State. and a House of Representatives, which consists of members elected by the various States and delegates from the Territories. The Judicial authority is vested in the **Supreme Court** at Washington. There are Circuit and District Courts subject to the Supreme Court in every State.

WASHINGTON (230), in the District of Columbia, a tract of country (72 square miles in area) on the left bank of the Potomac River, is the seat of the United States Government.

The *Revenue* has for many years greatly exceeded the *Expenditure*, and the *National Debt* is being rapidly reduced. The **Regular Army** of the United States amounts to no more than 28,000 men, while the organized militia in the several States numbers about 100,000 men. The Navy is being strengthened.

DIVISIONS.—The political division of the United States is into 44 States, 1 Federal District, and 5 Organised Territories.

^{1.} The Revenue, which amounted to about 95 of the National Expenditure in that year (over millions stering in 1890, is mainly derived from '70 millions stering; was on account of pensions. Customs duties on imports, and internal revenue The Public Debt has been reduced to less than taxes on spirits, tobacco, Sc. Nearly one-third 180 millions stering.

THE ATLANTIC STATES, 17 in number, may be conveniently divided into three sections: (1) the New England States; (2) the Middle Atlantic States; and (3) the South Atlantic States.

THE NEW ENGLAND STATES¹ are six in number-Maine, New Hampshire, Vermont, Massachusetts, Rhode Island, and Connecticut. They extend from the Atlantic to the Valley of the River Hudson and Lake Champlain.

MAINE is still largely covered with forests, and lumbering and shipbuilding are important industries, but **Fortland** (36), is the largest city. NEW HAMPSHIRE is the "Switzerland of North America." **Concord** (17) is the capital; **Manchester** (44) and **Nashua** (19) are important manufacturing towns. VERMONT is chiefly a farming country. **Montpelier** is the capital. MASSACHUSETTS ranks third among the manufacturing States of the Union, and second in foreign commerce, most of which passes through **Boston** (448), the capital of the State and the largest city in New England. **Lowell** (78), **Fall Elver** (74), **Lawrence** (45), **Worcester** (84), **Springfield**, **Lyrn** (55), and **Salem** (30), are important manufacturing towns. At **Lexing ton**, 11 miles to the north-west of Boston, the first battle of the War of Independence took place in 1755. **Plymouth**, on Cape Cod Bay, is venerated as the landing place of the "Pilgrims" from the "Mayflower" in 1620. RHODE ISLAND is the smallest and most densely populated State in the Union. It has two capitals, **Providence** (132) and **Newport** (19). CONNECTICUT, the most southerly of the New England States, is noted for its extensive coasting trade and its variety of manufactures. **Hartford** (53), the capital, is a. manufacturing town, and also a great centre of banking and insurance.

THE MIDDLE ATLANTIC STATES³ are seven in number, namely—New York, Pennsylvania, New Jersey, Delaware, Maryland, Virginia, and West Virginia, together with the Federal District of Columbia, extend from the Atlantic Coast to the Ohio River, and to Lakes Erie and Ontario and the Upper St. Lawrence.

NEW YORK, the "Empire State," is the foremost State in the Union in population, wealth, commerce, and manufactures, and is also one of the foremost agricultural States. One-third of its population is massed in New York (1,515) and Brooklyn (806), and several hundred thousands more are distributed in the manufacturing cities and industrial villages throughout the State. Buffalo (255), on Lake Erie, is a great grain port on the Great Lakes. NEW JERSEY includes a narrow and level district between the Delaware River and the sea. Newark (182) is the largest city in the State. Jersey City (163) is a suburb of New York. PENNSYLVANIA is the second manufacturing and the chief mining State in the Union. It produces one-half of the *iron*, nearly all the *petroleum*, and three-fourths of the *coal* mined in the States.

1. The areas and land States are, acc	võrdlu	ulation of the	he New Eng- venth Census	2. The areas a States are as follo	nd po	pulation of	the Middle
(1890), as follows :	•		-			Area in	Population
		Area in	Population			s q. miles.	1890.
		8q. müss.	1890.	New York	••	49,170	5,997,853
Maine	••	33,040	661,086	New Jersey		7.815	1.444.993
New Hampshire		9,305	376,530	Pennsylvania		45,915	5,268,014
Vermont		9,565	832,422	Delaware		2.050	168,493
Massachusetts		8,815	2,238,943	Maryland		19,910	1.049.390
Rhode Island		1,250	845,506	District of Colum	hia	70	\$20,392
Connecticut		4,990	748,258	Virginia		49,450	
				West Virginia		94 6.15	1,655,990

Pittsburg (240), at the junction of the Ohio and the Alleghany, is the centre of an enormous trade in coal, iron, and petroleum, and has the largest iron, steel, and glass works in America. Alleghany (105), on the other side of the river, is the third city in the State. Harrisburg (49), on the Susquehanna, is the capital, and there are numerous other large towns, but none approach in population or commercial importance the great city of Philadelphia (1,045), the first city of the United States in manufactures, the second in population, and the fifth in foreign commerce. DELAWARE is, next to Rhode Island, the smallest State in the Union. Dover is the capital, but Wilmington (61), is the chief city. MARYLAND has a mild climate and a soil well adapted to the growth of fruits, grain, and tobacco. Baltimore (434), a great manufacturing and commercial centre, on an estuary opening into Chesapeake Bay, is the only large city. Annapolis is the State capital. WASHINGTON (220), the Federal Capital, is in the District of Columbia, on the left bank of the Potomac River. The city contains the huge Capitol, in which the Congress meets, and the "White House," the official residence of the President. VIR-GINIA is an agricultural State.¹ The finest tobacco is grown in the valleys of the James and Roanoke Rivers, and there are large tobacco factories at Eichmond (31), the capital of the State. WEST VIRGINIA lies between the Alleghany Mountains and the Ohio River. Wheeling, a smaller Pittsburg, on the Ohio, is the only large town. Charleston, on the Great Kanawha River, is the capital.

THE SOUTHERN STATES include the broadest part of the Atlantic Plain, together with the Gulf Plain, and the Lower Mississippi Valley. The soil, especially along the Mississippi River, is remarkably fertile, and agriculture is the leading industry. **Cotton** is by far the most valuable crop—three-fourths of the cotton in the world are produced in these States.

The Southern States include one division of the Atlantic States, namely, the South Atlantic States, and also the Gulf States, and two Inland States.

The South Atlantic States² are North Carolina, South Carolina, Georgia, and Florida. NORTH CAROLINA has large pitch-pine forests along the coast, which yield tar, pitch, resin, and lumber. Ralsigh (13) is the capital, but Wilmington (20) is the largest city. SOUTH CAROLINA produces more rice than any other State, and the famous "sea island" cotton is produced on the islands and swamps which border the coast. Columbia (15) is the capital, but Charleston (55), an important cotton port, is the largest city. GEORGIA is both agricultural and manufacturing. Atlanta is the capital, but Savannah (43), the second cotton port in the Union, is the largest city. FLORIDA is low and swampy, its surface being nowhere more than 200 feet above the sea. It is noted for its mild and equable climate, and its productive orange groves. Key West (18) is a naval station off the south coast. Tallahassee is the capital. St. Augustine, on the Atlantic Coast, is the oldest town in the United States.

The **Gulf States**³ are Alabama, Mississippi, Louisiana, and Texas. Florida is partly a Gulf and partly an Atlantic State.

1. Virginia wa Richmond was, d	leading Slave	State, and the capital	8. The areas and population of the Gulf States are as follows:-					
of the Southern	Confe	domon	,	Area in sq. m. Pop. 1890				
or one bounding .	oome	uoracy.						
2. The area an	id po	pulation of th	e South At-	Alabama	••	••	52,250	1,513,010
lantic States are	as fo	lows :		Mississippi			46,810	1,289,600
		rea in sq. m.	Pop. 1890.	Louisiana			48,720	1.118.587
North Carolina		52.250	1.617.947	Texas			265,780	2,235,528
TIOLOT ON OTHER	•••				•••			
South Carolina	••	80,570	1,151,149					
Georgia		59,475	1,837,858					
Florida.	••	58,680	891,422					

ALABAMA is chiefly an agricultural State, and immeuse quantities of cotton, sugar, and rice are produced. The commercial centre of the State is the great cotton port of Mobile (81). Montgomery is the capital. MISSISSIPPI has a semi-tropical climate and the rich soil is highly favourable to the growth of cotton—the staple product—maize, oranges, bananas, and other fruits. Jackson is the capital. LOUISIANA is par excellence the sugar State—more sugar is produced on its fartile plantations than in any other State, but cotton and corn, rice, and semi-tropical fruits are also largely grown. Louisiana has also considerable manufactures, and an immense trade in solt. Baton Rouge (10), and Shreveport (12), are mere villages compared with New Orleans (242), which stands on either side of the Mississippi, about 95 miles above its mouth. New Orleans is the greatest cotton-exporting port in the world, and is also the chief outlet for the sugar, tobacco, wheat, and other products of the Mississippi Valley. TEXAS is the largest State in the Union. Great numbers of cattle and sheep are reared ; while cotton, corn, and wheat are largely grown in the east. The finest "sea-island" cotton grows along the coast. Austin is the capital, but the largest city is Galveston (29), a great cotton port on an island off the coast.

THE INDIAN TERRITORY is a large tract of land enclosed by the States of **Texas**, Arkansas, Missouri, and Kansas, and the "**Public Land**" district on the north-west of Texas. This territory, which has an area, including OKLA-HOMA (a recently organized territory, opened to white settlement a few years ago), of over 64,000 square miles, was set apart by the United States Government for Indian tribes removed from their original homes east of the Mississippi.

THE INLAND STATES¹ of the southern division are *Arkansas* to the west, and *Tennessee* to the east, of the Mississippi. ARKANSAS is traversed by the mighty Arkansas River, which is navigable for large steamers to Little Rock (26), the capital. TENNESSEE stretches eastwards from the Mississippi to the borders of North Carolina. Nashville (76), on the Cumberland River in Middle Tennessee, is both the capital and the largest city—" a rare fact in the United States." Memphis (64) is an important river-port on the Mississippi.

THE CENTRAL STATES, eight in number, lie in the Mississippi Valley, with the exception of a small portion in the north-east, which is within the basin of the Great Lakes. The Mississippi River divides this group into two divisions of four States each—the East Central Division including Kentucky, Ohio, Indiana, and Illinois, and the West Central Division, the States of Missouri, Iowa, Nebraska, and Kansas. Three of the East Central States touch on the Great Lakes, namely, Ohio on Lake Erie, and Indiana and Illinois on Lake Michigan.

The East Central States² are Kentucky, Ohio, Indiana, and Illinois. They extend from the Mississippi on the west to the Cumberland Mountains and the Upper Ohio River on the east.

KENTUCKY produces more tobacco and hemp than any other part of the Union. Louisville (161), on the Ohio, is the largest tobacco mart in the world. Frankfort, on the Kentucky River, is the capital. OHIO is the most densely-

1. The area and population of these two inland States are as follows:Arkansas, 53,055 ed. miles, population, 127,137. Teamessee, 43,006 ed. miles, 127,137. Teamessee, 43,006 ed. miles, 2 The areas and population of the East-Central States are as follows:	Kentucky Ohio	::	 	rsa in sq. m. 40,400 41,060 36,350 56,650	Pop. 1890. 1,858,635 3,672,316 2,192,404 8,896,381
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peopled of all the Central States, and is the third State in the Union in population, and among the first in manufacturing and mining. **Columbus** (88) is the capital, but the commercial and industrial centre of the State is **Cincinnati** (297), a great manufacturing and pork-packing place on the Ohio River. **Toledo** (81) and **Cieveland** (261) are the two chief lake-ports of Ohio. INDIANA has wide and fertile river valleys, well-grassed prairies, and extensive foresta. **Indianapolis** (105), the capital, is a great centre of railways and of trade. ILLINOIS is most advantageously situated for trade, and has numerous agricultural resources, and ranks fourth among the States in the value of its manufactures. Within this State, on the shore of Lake Michigan, is **Chicago** (1,100), the largest primary grain, live-stock, and lumber-market in the country, and surpassed only by New York in the extent and value of its commerce. **Springfield** (25) is the capital.

The West Central States¹ form another group of four States to the west of the Mississippi, corresponding to the four States already described to the east of that river. These West Central States are **Missouri**, **Iowa**, **Nebraska**, and **Kansas**.

MISSOURI is an agricultural as well as a mining State, and already has large manufactures. Jefferson City, on the Missouri, is the capital, but far more important are Kansas City (133), the "Chicago" of the West, and the great city of St. Louis (452), the "Queen of the Mississippi Valley" and the seat of an enormous trade by rail and river, with vast manufacturing industries. IOWA includes the fertile undulating prairies between the Mississippi and the Missouri. The capital, Des Moines (50), is in the centre of the State. On the Missouri, the principal places are Council Bluffs (21) and Sioux City (38). NEBRASKA has fertile wheat lands in the east and rich prairie pastures in the west. Omahs (140) is an important river-port and trade centre. Lincoln (55) is the capital. KANSAS, the "Garden of the West," is an immense rectangle of prairie (larger than Great Britain) with cultivable soil in the east, and pasture lands in the west. **Topeks** (31), on the Kansas River, a tributary of the Missouri, is the capital.

THE NORTHERN STATES,³ or more accurately, the North-Central States, form a group of five States, two of them—Michigan and Wisconsin—to the west, and the other three—Minnesota, North Dakota, and South Dakota—to the east, of the Upper Mississippi.

MICHIGAN, the "Lake State," consists of two peninsulas. The Lower Peninsula has fertile prairie lands and dense forests; the Upper Peninsula contains the richest copper mines in the world, as well as great forests of white pine and other valuable trees. Lansing (13), in the Lower Peninsula, is the capital. Detroit (206), on the Detroit River, which connects Lake St. Clair and Lake Erie, is one of the seven Great Lake ports. WISCONSIN has dense forests in the north and east, but both soil and climate of the open country are favourable to grain and stock, hence lumbering, wheat-growing, and cattlerearing are the chief industries. The commercial centre of the State is the great lake port of Milwaukee (205), one of the greatest wheat and lumber . ports in the world. Madison is the capital. MINNESOTA surpasses every other State in the Union in the production of wheat and flour, and the extra-

1. The au Central Sta	reas : tes ar	and y	opulation of	the West	2. The areas a: States are as foll	nd po	pulation of the	e Northern
			rea in sq. m.	Pop. 1890.		A	rea in eq. m.	Pop. 1890.
Missouri	••	••	69,415	2,679,184	Michigan	••	58,915	2,093,889
Iowa Nebraska	••	••	56,025	1,911,896	Wisconsin	••	56,040	1,686,880
Kansas.	••	••	77,510 82,080	1,058,910 1,427,096	North Dakota	••	83,365 70,795	1,301,826 182,719
ALLER	••	••	04,000	1,427,080	South Dakota		77,650	828,803

ordinary development of this industry has caused **St. Paul** (133), on the Mississippi, at the head of navigation for large steamers, and Minneapolis (165), 8 miles higher up the same river, to expand from mere villages into large cities with an immense trade and important manufactures. St. Paul is the capital of the State. NORTH DAKOTA and SOUTH DAKOTA are two States formed, in 1839, out of the immense Territory of Dakota, an agricultural and pastoral region, through which flows the Missouri River. Yankton, Siour Falls, and Deadwood, in South Dakota, and Bismarck and Fargo, in North Dakota, are the principal places.

THE WESTERN STATES AND TERRITORIES.³—The western grand division of the United States embraces the whole of the Pacific Highlands and a part of the Great Plains to the east of the Rocky Mountains.³

1. The Rocky Mountain Division includes the three States and one Territory traversed by the ranges of that gigantic system. These are the States of Montana, Wyoming, and Colorado, and the Territory of New Mexico.

In MONTANA, the few towns are nearly all in the mining region in the south-west. Here are **Butte City**, the centre of the gold-mining district, **Helena** (14), the capital of the State, **Virginia City**, **Argenta**, and other mining places. WYOMING is, next to Colorado, the most elevated part of the Union. **Cheyenne** (12), the capital, and **Laramie City**, the two largest of the few towns, are in the south-east. COLORADO is the loftiest State in the Union, and is famous for its rich silver mines. **Denver** (107), on the South Platte River, is the capital. **Leadville** (11) and **Silver Cliff** are silver-mining centres. The Territory of NEW MEXICO was settled by the Spaniards nearly 300 years ago, and many of the inhabitants are of Spanish descent. **Santa Fé**, the capital, is, with the single exception of St. Augustine on the coast of Florida, the cleat European settlement in the United States.

2. The Great Plateau Division includes two States—Idaho and Nevada—and two Territories—Utah and Arizona. These occupy the central and larger portion of the Great Plateau or basin between the Rocky Mountains on the east and the Cascades and the Sierra Nevada on the west.

In IDAHO, mining for gold and silver and stock-rearing are the principal industries. Boisé City, the capital, Idaho City, and Silver City are the chief mining centres. NEVADA is a rich mining State, producing four-fifths of the silver mined in the United States, more than half the lead, and much of the gold. Virginia City, on the famous Comstock lode, Carson City, the capital, Eurers, and Gold Hill, are the chief mining towns. UTAH Territory is remarkable as being the headquarters of the Mormons or Latter-Day Saints. Sait Lake City (45) is in the Jordan Valley to the south-east of the Great Sait

1. The area States and Te	s and rritori	pop es al	ulation of t	he Western	Area in sq. m. Pop. 1890. Oregon 96,050 \$13,767
		An	ia in s a. m.	Pop. 1890.	Washington
Montana			146,060	182,159	2. The Yellowstons National Park, a rectangu-
Wyoming	••	••	97,890	60,705	lar area of some 3.600 square miles in the north-
Colorado	••	••	108,925	419,198	wost, has been set anart as "a nernetual reser-
New Mexico (T.)		199,580	153,593	vation for the benefit and instruction of man-
Idaho			84.800	84, 385	kind." The deep caffons, lofty walls, geveers and
Nevada			110,700	45,761	lakes of this district, combine to make if the
Utah (T.)			84,970	207,905	most wonderful portion of the continent, and, in
Arizona (T.)			53,850	59,620	some respects, of the world.
California			158,380	1,908,130	

Lake, on the eastern side of which is Ogden (15), an important railway centre, where the Union Pacific Railway from the east connects with the Central Pacific Railway from the west. ARIZONA is very rich in minerals. and silver-mining is the leading industry. Tucson is the largest town, but Phoenix is the capital

3. The Pacific Division of the Western States is, in every respect, much more advantageously situated than either of the other divisions; indeed, the three States into which the Pacific Coast region of the United States is divided-California, Oregon, and Washington-compare favourably with the Atlantic or the Gulf States as regards both resources and climate.

CALIFORNIA, the "Golden State," richly deserves the title, for its gold and quicksilver mines are the richest in the world, while wheat and other cereals of the finest quality are produced in the "Great Valley" of the Sacramento River and its tributary, the San Joaquin. Oranges, grapes, and other fruits are also grown in abundance. **Sacramento** (26), on the Sacramento River in the Great Valley, is the capital of the State, but **San Francisco** (300), the commercial metropolis of the Pacific Coast, is the largest city. Oakland (49), on the opposite side of the Bay of San Francisco, is the targest city. Oakiand (49), on the opposite side of the Bay of San Francisco, is the terminus of the *Central Pacific Railway*. OREGON has immense agricultural and mineral resources. **Portland** (46) is the chief port, but **Salem** is the capital of the State. WASHINGTON, the extreme north-western State of the Union, the State. has numerous saw-mills along Puget Sound, salmon canneries on the Columbia River, and coal mines at Seattle, &c. Lumber, fish, wheat, and coal are at present the principal exports. **Olympia** is the capital. **Seattle** (43) and **Tacoma** (36) are rising ports on Puget Sound.

QUESTIONS ON THE UNITED STATES.

1. Point out on the map the extent of the United States, and name the boundaries. 2. Describe the great natural features of the United States. 3. Whate are the Great Basin and the Colorado

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A Name the principal rivers within the United

4. Name the principal rivers within the United States. 5. Which of the great lakes is wholly within the United States? 6. Say what you know concerning the climate of the United States. 7. In what part of the United States are coal and from found? 8. From what ration are the great majority of the population of the United States descended F 9. What inarguage generally prevails through-out the Union? 10. What races, besides the European, are included among the population of the United States?

States? 11. Name some of the chief productions of the United States.

12. In which part of the Union is cotton prin-

United States. 12. In which part of the Union is cotton prin-dipally grown? 13. In which part is manufacturing industry most providents, the principal exports and im-ports? With what countries is the trade chiefly 15. Under what kind of government are the United States? 16. How many States and Territories are in-cluded in the Union? 17. How are the States that lie along the At-lantic Coast divided? 18. Name the six New England States. 19. Name the six New England States. 20. In which States are the following towns, respectively: - Portland, Portsmouth, Provi-dence, and Newhaven? 21. For what is the town of Plymouth note-worthy? In what States is it situated?

22. Name the seven Middle Atlantic States. 23. What great city constitutes the commercial metropolis of the United States? At the mouth of what river is it?

of whit river is if? 94. Point on the map to the following places:--Philadelphis, Baltimore, Buffalo, Pitteburg, New York, and Washington. 25. For what circumstance is Washington note-worthy? On what river does its stand? 26. Name the Southern States, and point to the place which they occupy is a whole on the map. How many of the Southern States border on the 97. Which are the largest among the cities of the Southern States? 28. Name the ejebt Contral States.

28. Name the eight Central States. Which of them are to the west, and which to the east of the Mississippi?

29. Where are Cincinnati, Louisville, Cleve-land, Indianapolis, and Chicago? 30. Name the chief towns in the West Central

States Point out on the map the five Northern or 31

States
State

State is it? 37. Where are the following iowns:-Helena, Denver, Santa Fé, Boisé City, and Carson City? 38. What do you know of Utah? Name its chief towns.

For what is California famous?
 Where are Oakland, Sacramento, Salem, Olympia, Seattle, and Tacoma?

MEXICO.

MEXICO includes the northern and larger portion of the isthmus which unites North and South America.

BOUNDARIES.—Mexico is bounded on the north by the United States, on the west and south by the Pacific, and on the east by the waters of the Gulf of Mexico. To the south-eastward, it joins the narrow regions known as Central America.

EXTENT.—The Mexican portion of the isthmus varies in width from 500 miles in the north to 125 miles in the south. Its area is estimated at 740,000 square miles, or more than 12 times that of England and Wales.

COASTS.—In general low and unbroken. The principal inlets are the *Gulf of Campeachy* on the east, and the *Gulf of California* and that of *Tehuantepec* on the west.

SURFACE.—Mexico consists of a high plateau, bordered by a narrow strip of low land upon either side. This low plain is generally of greater breadth upon the side of the Gulf of Mexico than upon that of the Pacific Ocean. From the low coast-plain, the country rises towards the interior by a succession of terraces, one above another, until at length the summit of the tableland is reached. The higher parts of this vary from 6,000 to 9,000 feet above the sea; the plain on which the city of Mexico stands is upwards of 7,500 feet.

The surface of the Mexican Plateau is diversified both by continuous chains of high ground and by isolated mountain peaks, many of which are volcances. Among the latter **CitlaItepeti** or Star Mountain, also called **Orizaba**, reaches 17,372 feet, but this giant peak is, according to a Mexican Geography, several hundred feet lower than the colossal volcano of **Popocatepeti**, which is visible from the capital, about 60 miles distant.¹ **Jorulio**, another volcano of this chain, is remarkable for having been thrown up in a single night (in 1759), to a height of 1,600 feet above the level of the plateau.

Rivers.—Mexico has no rivers of any considerable magnitude. Some of the streams which water portions of the interior plateau terminate in salt lakes, without reaching the sea.

The **Rio Grande** forms the boundary between Mexico and the State of Texas. Of the rivers within Mexico, the largest is the **Santiago**, which drains the central part of the country into the Pacific.

Lakes.-The principal lakes are Chapala, through which the Santiago flows; Cayman, in the north; and the small lake of Tercuco, near Mexico.

CLIMATE.—The climate of Mexico varies from north to south, being on the whole mild in the north, warm in the centre, and tropical in the south.

But the temperature also varies from the coast to the great tablelands in the interior. The low plains which stretch along the coast are intensely hot and generally unhealthy. The interior plateaux enjoy a moderate temperature, and

^{1.} Professor Heilprin gives the heights of these | Popocatepeti, 17,515 feet. - Alpine Journal for mountains as follows :- Orizaba, 18,207 feet, and | February, 1891.

MEXICO.

the various elevations which are passed through in the ascent to them exhibit a progressive diminution of heat. Generally speaking, elevations above 2,000 feet are free from the unhealthy influences which belong to the damp and heated atmosphere of the coast.

PRODUCTIONS.—The natural productions are rich and varied, alike in the mineral and the vegetable kingdoms, but they are turned to little account.

1. Gold and silver, with numerous other metallic ores, are extensively distributed. A great many mines are still worked, but the mineral produce of Mexico in the present day is inconsiderable compared to its former amount.

2. A rich variety of fruits, medicinal herbs, and other vegetable productions are native to Mexico. One of the most characteristic is the cochineal plant, a species of cactus upon which the cochineal insect (valued for its red dye) thrives. Vanilla, cacao, and jalapa are native to Mexico. Tobacco, coffee, indigo, and sugar are grown; the first-named is indigenous to the soil.

INHABITANTS.—This vast region, which is about 6 times the size of the United Kingdom, has a population of less than 12 millions, of whom scarcely 2 millions are of pure or nearly pure white race, while no less than 6 millions are Indians.

The whites are almost exclusively of Spanish descent. About four millions are *Mestizoes*, that is, of mixed Indian and Spanish blood. The **Greoles**, as the pure descendants of whites are called, and most of the Mestizoes and civilized Indians, are Roman Catholics. Public education, which is by law free and compulsory, is very backward.

INDUSTRIES.—Silver-mining, cattle-rearing, and agriculture are the leading occupations of the Mexican people.

The silver mines of Mexico were formerly the richest in the world, and they still yield a large proportion of the world's production of silver. *Cattle-rearing* is the main industry on the great plains in the interior, especially in Northern Mexico. *Agriculture* is conducted in an extremely primitive fashion. Maize is the chief cereal crop, but wheat, barley, and rice are also grown. The acreage under cotton, sugar-cane, henequen (a textile plant), coffee, and tobacco is steadily increasing.

Commerce.—The foreign trade of Mexico is carried on chiefly with the United States, Great Britain, France, and Germany. Annual value, 23 millions sterling.

Ports.-The principal ports are Vera Cruz, Tampico, Matamoros, Progreso, and Campeachy, on the Mexican Gulf, and Guaymas, Mazatlan, San Blas, Manzanillo, Acapulco, and Tehuantepec, on the Pacific Coast.

Internal Communication.—The roads are bad and scarcely anywhere adapted for carriages. There are now over 6,000 miles of railway open for traffic.

GOVERNMENT.—Mexico forms a federal republic, under an elective President. The legislative power is vested in a Congress consisting of a House of Representatives and a Senate. Each of the States has its own constitution, government, and laws.

1. The Astec Indians of Mexico, Puebla, and on the plateau of Anahuac long before the Vera Orus are the descendants of the famous Spaniards set foot in the country. race which had formed a highly civilised empire

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The history of Mexico, as, unfortunately, of almost all Spanish America, is a mere record of pronunciamentos and uprisings without end—one revolution after another and military despotism, alternating with periods of perfect anarchy, combining with the influences of an oppressive priesthood to destroy the prosperity of the country. During the last decade, however, the country has been peaceable and has prospared, and the construction of an efficient railway system, connected with that of the United States, has powerfully assisted in developing its great resources. The annual revenue now amounts to about 7 millions starling, and the expenditure to 7⁴ millions. The public debt, external and internal, is about 16⁴ millions.

DIVISIONS and TOWNS.—Mexico is divided into twenty-seven States, two Territories, those of *Lower California* and *Tepic*, and the Federal District of *Mexico*.

The Mexican States are named, in most cases, after the towns which they include, but few of these are of any considerable size. The city of MEXICO (380), which greatly exceeds any other in population, is the capital. Mexico stands on the interior tableland, nearly midway between the two oceans, and at an elevation of more than 7,500 feet above their waters. It was already a seat of empire—the capital of the native Aztec monarchy—when Cortes reduced Mexico under the Spanish arms, in the early part of the 16th century. It is now connected by rail with New Orleans and with Vera Cruz on the Gulf of Mexico, and with the ports of Acapulco, Manzanillo, and San Blas on the Pacific Coast.

Vers. Crus (24) and Acapulco—the one on the Atlantic Coast, the other on that of the Pacific—are the chief seaports of Mexico. Vers Cruz occupies an unhealthy situation on the low shore of the Gulf of Mexico. Tampico, further north on the same line of coast, has some share in Mexican commerce, especially in exporting the produce of the mines. Matamoros is an important town on the borders of Texas; it stands on the Rio Grande about 40 miles above its mouth. Acapulco, on the Pacific, possesses one of the finest harbours in the world. Maxatlan, Guaymas, San Blas, Manzanillo, and Tehuantepeo, which are also on the Pacific, are rising ports, and three of them—Acapulco, Manzanillo, and San Blas—are connected by rail with the capital.

The chief towns in the interior are **Puebla** (80), at the foot of Popocatepetl, to the south-east of Maxico, Leon (50), to the north-west of the capital, and **Guadalaxara** (95), further west, in the valley of the River Santiago; all the three are manufacturing towns of some importance.¹

The long and narrow peninsula of California, on the western side of the gulf to which its name is given, forms one of the Territories that are attached to Mexico. The name of Lower California is given to this region, in order to distinguish it from the State of California to the north, of which it is, physically, the continuation. It has an area of over 60,000 square miles, but the population, consisting chiefly of Spanish and Indian half-castes, does not exceed 40,000.

YUCATAN, also a peninsula, adjoining the opposite extremity of Mexico, forms one of the Mexican States. It has an area of 30,000 square miles and a population of 300,000, four-fifths of them Indians and Mestizoes. It contains the towns of Merida (32) and Campeachy, the former of which is the capital.

^{1.} Very few among the other cities of Maxico possess any other than local importance. The whole country exhibits a wast decline from its fourishing condition during the leth and 17th centuries, when the treasarse of the New World were poured into Europe from its shores. But it contains abundant indications of former prosperity, shown in the magnificent architecathedrais, convents, and other structures.

There are also in various parts of Mexico, monuments of earlier date which bear testimony to the partial civilisation stained by the Indians prior to the Spanish conquest. Many of these monuments hear considerable resemblance to the rulns that are so numerously strewn over the plains that are so numerously strewn over the plains of Western Asis, and, like them, are gash on with wonder, not unmixed with awe, by the present degenerate neos of natives.

CENTRAL AMERICA.

The name of CENTRAL AMERICA is given to the narrow tract of country which extends from Mexico to the Isthmus of Panama. This region is washed by the waters of the Caribbean Sea and the Pacific Ocean on either side, and no part of it is far removed from one or other of the great oceans.

Central America is bounded by Mexico on the north, the Caribbean Sea on the east, and the Pacific Ocean on the west and south.

The area of this territory is estimated at 176,000 square miles, or about 3 times that of England and Wales. Its breadth varies from 300 miles in the centre to 70 in the south.

SURFACE.—Central America, like Mexico, consists of high plateaux in the interior, with low plains adjoining the coast.

The plateaux are inferior in height to those of Mexico, but they are bordered on the western side by high mountains, many of which reach an altitude of 13,000 feet and upwards. Several of these mountains are active volcances. The low plain along the Atlantic Coast is of considerable extent, especially that part of it which is called the *Mosquito Coast*.

RIVERS.—The rivers of Central America are of little importance, excepting in so far as they afford the means of navigation into the interior, and of thereby effecting a nearer approach to communication between the two oceans.

The river San Juan, which enters the Caribbean Sea near Greytown (or San Juan de Nicaragua), has hence become of some note. It issues from the large Lake of Nicaragua, the western shores of which approach within eleven miles of the Pacific. Steamers navigate the river and lake, and this route has formed of late years one of the most frequented lines of communication between the countries that lie upon the opposite side of the American continent. The smaller (but still extensive) Lake of Managua or Leon lies to the north-west of Lake Nicaragua, and discharges a stream into it.

Climate and Productions.—The climate and natural productions of Central America bear a general resemblance to those of Mexico. The coasts are hot and unhealthy, while the elevated interior is comparatively temperate. The productions of the forest are of high value. There are mines of gold, silver, copper, and zinc, as well as other valuable mineral produce.

INHABITANTS.—The total population of Central America is estimated at about 3 millions, an average of 17 to the square mile.

Three-fourths of the population of the Central American States are either Indians or Mestizces. The whites, who are everywhere the ruling race, are almost uniformly of Spanish descent. Many of the Indians speak the Spanish language.

Industries.—In all these countries, **agriculture** is in a backward condition, and the produce of small amount, compared with the capabilities which they possess. This is in a great measure the result of political insecurity, due to the frequent revolutions.

Commerce.—Indigo, cochineal, coffee (the last chiefly from Costa Rica), with sugar, hides, and valuable cabinet and dyo woods, &c., are the chief exportable products. The exports to, and imports from, Great Britain—the latter consisting chiefly of cotton goods, metal wares, and machinery—each amount to about a million sterling.

DIVISIONS.—Five distinct States—the republics of **Guatemala**, **Salvador**, **Honduras**, **Nicaragua**, and **Costa Rica**—and one British Colony—**British Honduras** or Belize—are included within Central America.

1. GUATEMALA, the most northerly of the Central American Republics, has an area of about 46,800 square miles, and a population of about 14 millions, more than half of whom are pure Indians, the rest being half-castes, with the exception of a few descendants of Europeans.

The elevated mountain chain which traverses the country from west to east, has several volcanic summits over 13,000 feet in height. Earthquakes are frequent, and, indeed, the whole of Central America is more or less liable to earthquakes, which are sometimes of great violence. The capital, NEW GUATE-MALA (66), is more populous than any other city in Central America. Old Guatemala—the former capital of the State—was abandoned as the seat of government from its liability to earthquakes, as well as from the injury to which it is exposed from the eruptions of neighbouring volcances.

2. SALVADOR is the smallest of the States of Central America, its area being 7,228 square miles, only about one-sixth that of England and Wales. This little republic extends along the Pacific Coast for about 170 miles, and inland for about 40 miles to the frontiers of Honduras. It has a population of over 650,000, who are largely engaged in agriculture, manufactures, and, within recent years, mining. The capital, SAN SALVADOR (17), founded in 1528, has been repeatedly devastated by earthquakes. The principal port is La Libertad, on the coast, 15 miles south-west of the capital.

3. HONDURAS lies between Guatemala and Nicaragua, and extends along the Caribbean coast from the Gulf of Honduras to Cape Gracies & Dios. It has an area of about 46,000 square miles, and a population of less than half a million, mostly Indians and Ladinos, or half-castes. The capital of the republic is TEGUCIGALPA (12), 40 miles south-east of the former capital, Comayagua. The chief ports are Truxillo and Omos, both on the Gulf of Honduras.

4. NICARAGUA is the largest State in Central America, having an area of 51,660 square miles. Its population, however, only amounts to 400,000, of whom but a small number are of European descent.

This State is naturally the richest in Central America, but long continued political troubles have hindered any great progress. The present capital is **MANAGUA** (18), which is situated on the slope of an active volcano, near the southern shores of Lake Managua. Leon, the old capital, is now partly in ruins, but has still about 25,000 inhabitants. Granada, on the north-western border of Lake Nicaragua, is one of the oldest cities in Central America. Near the mouth of the San Juan River, which forms the outlet of Lake Nicaragua, is Greytown or San Juan de Nicaragua.¹

5. COSTA RICA, the most southern of the Central American States, extends across the isthmus, and has an area of 20,000 square miles and a population of a quarter of a million, most of them of Spanish descent, the half castes being few in number. SAN JOSE (14), the capital, is connected by rail with the port of Limon, on the Atlantic, and with **Punta Arenas**, on the Pacific.

6. BRITISH HONDURAS.—The Crown Colony of British Honduras or *Belize*, the only British possession in Central America, is bounded on the north by the Mexican State of Yucatan, on the

^{1.} The Nicaragua Ship Canal, which seems Greytown on the Atlantic side to Brito on the likely to accomplish what the Panama Canal Pacific, utilising the Lake of Nicaragua and the Company has failed to do, is to extend from channels of several rivers for a part of the way.

west and south by Guatemala, and on the east by the Caribbean Sea. It has an area of 7,500 square miles and a population of about 30,000, the majority of whom are Negroes and Indians.

The climate and soil are adapted for the luxuriant growth of almost every tropical product. Mahogany, logwood, and bananas are the most important articles of export, principally to Great Britain and the United States. The capital and centre of trade is the neat and picturesque little town of Belize, at the mouth of the Belize River.

QUESTIONS ON MEXICO AND CENTRAL AMERICA.

1. Name the boundaries of Mexico, and point them out upon the map. 2. Give some account of the natural features of Mexico.

of Mexico. 3. What kind of climate has Mexico? In what way is this affected by the characteristic fea-tures of its physical formation?

4. Say what you know concerning the natural productions of Mexico, naming some of its characteristic plants.

To what races does the population of Mexico 5

belong? 6. What is the general condition of industry

belong: 6. What is the general condition of industry in Mexico at the present time? What articles are exported? the map to the city of Mexico 7. Point on site distinguished? What is the two oblief samports of Mexico, on the Atlantic and Pacific coasts, respectively, and distributions out on the man.

point them out on the map. 9. Where are the following-Tampico, Mazatlan, San Blas, Lower California, Yucatan, and

Campeachy? 10. What kind of government is Mexico under? What religion is uniformly followed?

11. Where is Central America? Point to its

limits on the map. 12 By what seas is Central America bounded on either hand? Name the great inlet on its

on either maint stand are generated and the estern coast. 13. What are the characteristic natural fea-tures of this region? 14. What two lakes does Central America con-tain? What river issues from the larger of the two?

two? 15. Say what you know concerning the population of this region. 18. What articles are exported from Central America? 17. How many distinct States are compre-hended within Central America? Name them. 13. Space what you know of Guatemais and 13. Space what you know of Guatemais and Statemais and Statem

Salvado

Salvador. 13. Give some particulars of Honduras, Nica-ragua, and Costa Rica. 20. Where is British Honduras? What is the name of its chief town? 21. What articles of produce does British Honduras furnish?

THE WEST INDIES.

The WEST INDIES¹ form an immense semicircular chain of islands. extending from Southern Florida to the mouths of the Orinoco, and lying between the Gulf of Mexico and the Caribbean Sea and the open Atlantic.

The numerous islands of this region are geographically divided into (1) the Bahamas, (2) the Greater Antilles, and (3) the Lesser Antilles. The Lesser Antilles are further subdivided into (a) the Leeward Islands, and (b) the Windward Islands.

The Bahamas are the most northerly portion of the West Indian Archipelago.

The Greater Antilles consist of Cuba, Haiti, Jamaica, and Porto Rico. and a number of smaller islands.

The Lesser Antilles comprehend the long chain of islands that stretch, in a curved line, from the eastern extremity of Porto Rico to the mainland of South America.

The total area of the West Indian Islands is estimated at 95,000 square miles, of which the Greater Antilles include not less that 83,000 square miles.

^{1.} So called, because Columbus thought that, | the Bahamas, he had reached the western shores when he sighted the island of San Salvador, in | of India.

NATURAL FEATURES.—All the larger islands of the West Indies are more or less mountainous. So also, with few exceptions, are the islands belonging to the Windward and Leeward chains. The Bahama Islands, on the contrary, are almost wholly level.

In Cuba, the largest island of the West Indies, the mountains reach nearly 8,000 feet above the level of the sea, and the mountains in the island of Haiti exceed that altitude. The *Blue Mountains* of Jamaica are upwards of 7,000 feet. Fertile plains and watered valleys alternate with the high grounds. Many of the smaller islands exhibit peaks which rise to 3,000 feet, and some to even double that altitude.

CLIMATE.—The climate of the West Indies is thoroughly tropical. With the exception of a part of the Bahama chain, the entire archipelago is within the Torrid Zone, and exhibits the usual characteristics of that belt of the globe. But the average temperature is not so high as in the corresponding latitudes of the Eastern Hemisphere.

The dry and rainy seasons follow one another with unfailing regularity, and the quantity of rain is excessive—surpassing (in the case of some of the smaller islands) that which is experienced in any other part of the globe. It is only during the rains that the climate is unhealthy.

PRODUCTIONS.—The most valuable productions of this region are those which belong to the vegetable world.

Manioc, arum (or taro¹), sweet potato, arroworoot, maize, pine-apple, pimento,² ginger, cocca, wanilla, the tamarind, guava, cocca-nut palm, indigo, and tobacco, are indigenous to the soil. The sugar-cane, coffee, cocca, plantain, and bread-fruit all flourish.

The chief commercial productions of the West Indies are sugar, rum, molasses, and coffee; with cocca, tobacco, cotton, spices (chiefly pimento and ginger), to a smaller amount.

Three of the above—sugar, rum, and molasses (or treacle)—are the produce of the sugar-cane, the culture of which was introduced into this region by the Spaniards at an early date after the discovery of the New World. The cultivation of the sugar-cane is even yet the leading industry in these islands, and sugar, rum, and molasses still form the chief exports.

INHABITANTS.—The total population of the West Indies probably amounts to about 4 millions, an average of over 40 persons to the square mile.

Nearly two-thirds of the population of the whole region are Negroes, the remaining third Whites and Mulattoes, the latter of mixed European and Negro blood. Europeans and people of European descent (Creoles) are most numerous in Cuba, where they amount to considerably more than one-half of the whole.

DIVISIONS.—With the exception of the island of Haiti, which is divided between the two independent republics of *Haiti* and *San Domingo*, all the West Indian islands are in the possession of five European powers, namely, *Great Britain*, *Spain*, *France*, *Holland*, and *Denmark*.

1. THE BRITISH WEST INDIES.—The British portion of the West Indian Archipelago includes the large island of Jamaica, in the Greater Antilles, and Trinidad, Barbados, and other islands in the Lesser Antilles.

The Administrative Divisions of the British West India Islands are (1) Jamaica, (2) the Bahama Islands, (3) the Leeward Islands, (4) the Windward Islands, (5) Trinidad and Tobago, and (6) Barbados.1

The Bermudas, a group of islands in the North Atlantic, 600 miles west of Cape Hatteras, are also British.

1. JAMAICA.-The island of JAMAICA,² the Xaimaca, or "land of wood and water," of the old Caribs, is by far the largest and most important of the British West India Islands. It is about 150 miles in length, and 50 miles in greatest breadth, and has an area of 4,200 square miles, and a population of over 600,000, not more than 3 per cent. of whom are whites.

A glance at the map will show the physical character of the island. The grand central chain of the Blue Mountains rises in some peaks to 7,300 feet above the sea. Of the numerous rivers, only one, the Black River, is navigable, above the sea. Of the numerous rivers, only one, the **BIACK EXPER**, is navigable, and that only for boats. There are excellent harbours; the island is intersected by good roads, and there are about 70 miles of railway. The trade of Jamaica is mostly with the United States (50 per cent.) and the United Kingdom (40 per cent.). The chief articles of export, in order of value, are—**Upe-woods**, fruits, **coffee**, **sugar**, and **rum**. The centre of the external trade is **ENNGSTON**, the capital, on the south coast, and its harbour—**Port Royal**—is the finest of the 30 good harbours of the island. **Montego Bay** and **Falmouth**, on the north side of the island are also important parts **Fourish** the form capital side of the island, are also important ports. Spanish Town, the former capital, is about 11 miles west of Kingston.

2. THE BAHAMAS are the most northerly of the West Indian Islands. They lie to the north of Cuba and Haiti, and have an area of about 5,800 square miles, and a population of 50,000, nearly one-third of whom are whites. Of over 500 islands and islets, not more than 20 are inhabited, and of these the most important are New Providence (containing the capital, NASAU), San Sal-vador or Watling Island,³ Abaco, Grand Bahama, Long Island, Eleuthera, Great Inagua, and Andros, with the Turk's and Calcos Islands,⁴ which are politically attached to Jamaica.

3. THE LEEWARD ISLANDS, extending from the Spanish island of Porto Rico to the French island of Martinique, belong to Great Britain, with the exception of St. Thomas, Santa Cruz, Guadeloupe, and a few other islands. The British Colony of the Leeward Islands is a federation, formed in 1871,

of the five presidencies of (1) Antigua, (2) St. Christopher and Nevis, (3) Do-minica, (4) Montserrat, and (5) the Virgin Islands. ANTIGUA, the second largest of these charming islands, is the seat of the general government of the Leeward Islands, and its capital, ST. JOHN'S, is the residence of the Governorin-Chief. **Barbuda**, 30 miles north of Antigua, is a dependency of that island. ST. CHRISTOPHER, better known as St. Kitts, and NEVIS, with AN-GUILLA, form one presidency. DOMINICA lies between the two French islands of Guadeloupe and Martinique, and once belonged to France, and has remained French in speech. MONTSERRAT, so widely and well-known for



^{1.} The British West Indies have an area of about 13,760 square miles, and a population of relational long, most of whom are Negroes or 2. Janaics was discovered by Columbus, and 1956, it was taken by an English fleet sent out by Comwell, and was formally ceded to Great Britain in 1670. The abolition of slavery in Jamaics took place in 1833. In 1864-5, the negroes

its healthful lime-fruit, is a small island, hilly, but fertile and healthy—the healthiest of the Lesser Antilles. The VIRGIN ISLANDS—Tortola (on which is ROADTOWN, the capital of the group), Anegada, and Virgin Gorda—have all suffered severely from hurricanes.

4. THE WINDWARD ISLANDS extend from Martinique to Trinidad, and include St. Lucia, St. Vincent, the Grenadines, Grenada, Tobago, and Barbados. Of these, Tobago is politically attached to Trinidad, and Barbados forms a separate colony; the rest are included in the British Colony of the Windward Islands, which has a total area of over 500 square miles and a population of about 100,000, not one-twentisth of whom are whites.

ST. LUCIA is the most northerly of the British Windward Islands. CASTRIES, the chief town, has the best harbour in the Antilles, and is now the second naval station in the British West Indies. ST. VINCENT lies between St. Lucia and Grenada, and almost due west of Barbados. The capital is KINGETOWN, on the south-west coast. GRENADA is fortunately out of the line of hurricanes, so that its bay of St. George is the safest and snuggest of the ports in the Windward Islands. The GRENADINES are a group of small islands between Grenada and St. Vincent, to the Governments of which they are attached.

5. TRINIDAD, the most southerly of the long chain of the Antilles, lies off the eastern coast of Venezuela—the Gulf of Paria separating it from the mainland—immediately north of the mouth of the Orinoco. The smaller island of **Tobago**, to the north, was annexed to the government of Trinidad in 1889.

Trinidad has an area of 1,754 square miles, and a population of about 200,000. It is an island of extraordinary resources, and its fertile soil is admirably adapted to the cultivation of almost every tropical product. Sugar and cocca, coffee and tobacco, are at present the chief objects of culture, and the wonderful *Pitch Lake* is a source of considerable wealth. Port of Spain is the capital; about 30 miles to the south is another seaport, San Fernando, with one of the finest harbours in the West Indies.

6. BARBADOS, the most easterly of the West Indian Islands, is nearly a hundred miles distant from St. Vincent, the nearest of the Windward Islands. Though only 21 miles long and 14 miles broad, with an area of not more than 166 square miles, Barbados has a population of nearly 200,000, or considerably more than a thousand to the square mile, and is, after Jamaica, the most important of the British West Indian Islands. Bridgetown is the capital of this productive little island, which has "the appearance of a well-kept garden."

THE BERMUDAS are an isolated group of islands in the North Atlantic, about 600 miles from Cape Hatteras. Of the numerous islands in this group, only about 20 are inhabited—these have a population of 16,000, of whom 6,000 are white. The 300 islands and islets of Bermuda are all of coralline formation; the climate is so remarkably equable and salubrious that Hamilton is a favourite winter resort; the soil produces arrowroot of the finest quality as well as an abundant supply of fruits and vegetables; while the forests yield a valuable and durable cedar.

II.—**THE SPANISH WEST INDIES** include Cuba, the "Queen of the Antilles," and Porto Rico, the "healthiest of all the Antilles," and several small islands and islets.

1. **CUBA**¹ is the largest of the West Indian Islands, and has an area of 43,000 square miles, with a population of 14 millions, of whom about 200,000 are Spaniards by birth, and 600,000 Cubans or Creoles, mostly of Spanish descent. The rest include half a million Negroes, 50,000 Chinese, and 10,000 foreign whites.

^{1.} Cuba was discovered by Columbus in 1492, and was first settled by the Spaniards in 1511. A formidable insurrection broke out in the

The chief physical feature of Cuba is the chain of mountains which extends through the interior of the island. The extensive plains on either side of this range are, on the whole, well watered, and, where properly cultivated, exceedingly fertile, producing sugar, tobacco, coffee, cotton, indigo, maize, &c. *Sugar* is the chief product of Cuba, and the "vegas" or tobacco plantations annually produce about 300,000 bales of the finest tobacco. About 180,000 bales of the "weed" are exported from Havana, besides over 200 millions of cigars. The Cuban capital, Havana (250), situated on the north side of the island, is the largest city in the West Indies. It has a very large number of cigar factories, and is the centre of an extensive trade.¹ Matanzas, an important port east of Havana, is the second city on the island. There are several other flourishing towns in the interior of the island and many busy ports.

2. FORTO BICO² has an area of 3,550 square miles (about half the size of Yorkshire), and a population of 784,000, more than half of them whites. The chief products, like those of Cuba, are sugar, coffee, and tobacco. San Juan (25) is the capital and chief port, but Fonce (40) and San German (30) are larger towns.

III.—**THE FRENCH WEST INDIES** include the islands of Martinique, Guadeloupe, and a portion of St. Martin, with several smaller islands. The French islands have a total area of over 1,000 square miles, and a population of 370,000, of whom only 25,000 are whites.

The island of MARTINIQUE lies between St. Lucia and Dominica. The largest town is **St. Pierre** (22), but Fort de France (11) is the capital. GUADE-LOUPE is north of Dominica. It consists of two portions, connected by a narrow isthmus. **Basse-Terre** (10), in the western peninsula, is the capital of the island. **Pointe-à-Pitre**, in the eastern portion, is the chief port and largest town. The smaller islands-**Marie Galante**, **Desirade**, &c. —which surround Guadeloupe, are also French.

ST. BARTHOLOMEW, a small island lying south-east of St. Martin, formerly belonged to Sweden, but was restored to France in 1877. The larger half of ST. MARTIN also belongs to France—the rest is a Dutch possession.

IV.—THE DANISH WEST INDIES, though including only three small islands—St. Croix, St. Thomas, and St. John—are of some commercial importance, St. THOMAS being a port of call for steamers, and an entrepôt for the products of the surrounding islands.

ST. CROIX, or Santa Cruz, lies to the east of Porto Rico. The island of ST. THOMAS is one of the Virgin group—the town of **St. Thomas** is on a fine natural harbour, and is most favourably situated for commerce.

V.—THE DUTCH WEST INDIES embrace two groups—St. Eustache, Saba, and the southern part of St. Martin, in the Leeward Islands; and Curaçao, Buen Ayre, and Oruba, off the coast of Venezuela—all of them included in the "Colony of Curacao."

Willemstadt, the chief town of **Cura**çao, the largest island (famous for its *liqueur*), is the seat of government. **Oruba** is to the west, and **Buen Ayre** to the east, of Curaçao. The northern islands are smaller and less populous.

^{1.} Columbus was buried in the cathedral at 1493, and has since remained a Spanish posses Havana. 2. Porto Rico was discovered by Columbus in 1878.

VI.-INDEPENDENT STATES: The large island of HAITI or SAN DOMINGO, inferior only to Cuba in magnitude, is divided between the two Negro Republics of Haiti and San Domingo. The former embraces the western, the latter the eastern, division of this important island, which measures 400 miles in length and 160 miles in greatest breadth, and has an area of 30,000 square miles, with a population of perhaps 11 millions, nearly all Negroes or Mulattoes.

This island is naturally one of the finest in the world, and was long one of the most productive. But, since the closing years of the last century, prior to which time it had been divided between France and Spain, it has been the frequent theatre of anarchy and bloodshed, and its commercial produce has dwindled to a comparatively insignificant amount.

HAITI.—The Republic of Haiti includes the western and French-speaking portion of the island, and was formerly a French colony. The area of the republic is about 10,000 square miles, and the population about three-quarters of a million, nine-tenths of whom are Negroes. The entire trade is less than 24 millions a year-coffee, logwood, cocoa, cotton, hides, sugar, honey, and gums are the chief exports from Port-au-Prince (34), the capital and principal seaport.

SAN DOMINGO.-The Republic of San Domingo embraces the central and eastern part of the island. It has an area of 20,000 square miles and a population of 600,000. The tobacco, coffee, mahogany, cacao, hides and skins, logwood, sugar, and other products of the republic, are exported principally through Puerta Plata, an important port on the north coast, and San Do-mingo (16), the capital, on the south coast. Samana Bay is a magnificent natural harbour on the north-eastern coast of the island.

QUESTIONS ON THE WEST INDIES.

By what seas are the islands of the West Indies surrounded?
 Name the three portions into which the West Indies are divided. Which is the largest island of the entire archipelago?
 What are the natural features of the larger islands of this region? concerning the alignet?

(slands of this region? 4. What do you know concerning the climate? 5. Mention some of the vegetable productions that are indigenous to this region. 6. What race of people forms the great majority of the population of the West Indies? 7. What are the chief commercial productions of the West Indies? 8. What islands are included in the British West Indie? 9. Which of the West Indian islands belong to Smain?

Which of the West Indian islands belong to Spain ?
 Which islands belong to France, Holland, and Demmark respectivel?
 Name the respective capitals of Jamaica, Trinidad, and Barbados, and give a brief de-scription of each of these islands.

Which of the British West Indian islands are known as the Windward Islands? Which as the Leeward Islands?
 Point to the following: — Antigua, St Christopher, Monteerrat, and the Virgin Islanda.
 Where are the Bahama Islands? What is the name of their chief town?
 By what event, in the annals of geo-graphical discovery, are the Bahama Islands distinguished?
 By what event be Bermuda Islands, and to what nation do they belong? What is their chief article of produce?
 Where are the Bermuda Islands, and to these islands.
 Find out the places of the following islands on the map: —Guadeloupe, Martinique, St. Mar-tin, Banda Cruz, and Curzago.
 Bow the therein the West Indice formerly.
 Bow that wate the chief site is the island of Haits.

SOUTH AMERICA.

The continent of SOUTH AMERICA forms the southern half of the New World. It is joined to North America by the Isthmus of Panama, and stretches southward to Cape Horn, which lies nearly under the 56th parallel of South latitude. South America is crossed by the line of the equator, but by far the larger part of the continent is within the southern hemisphere.

BOUNDARIES.—South America is bounded on the *north* by the Caribbean Sea and the Atlantic Ocean, on the *east* by the Atlantic Ocean, and on the *west* by the Pacific. To the southward, it gradually diminishes in breadth, and terminates in a group of rocky islands, called Tierra del Fuego, of which the southernmost extremity is Cape Horn.

EXTENT.—Looked at as a whole, South America, like Africa, forms a vast peninsula. It includes an *area* of 7,000,000 square miles, and is therefore nearly twice the size of Europe.

The greatest length, from north to south, is about 4,550 miles.

The greatest breadth, from east to west, is about 3,200 miles.

COASTS.—The coasts of South America, like those of Africa, are remarkably regular and unbroken. The total length of coast-line is estimated at 15,000 miles, equal to an average of 1 mile of coast to every 467 square miles of surface.

1. Inlets.—The coast line of South America presents few gulfs of any considerable magnitude. The most important inlets are the Gulfs of Darien, Venezuela, and Paria, and the estuaries of the Amazon and Para, on the *morth*; the Rio de la Plata, and the Gulfs of San Matias and St. George on the east; and the Gulfs of Guayaquil and Panama on the vest.

2. Capes.—The principal capes are Gallinas and Orange on the north ; San Roque, Branco, Frio, San Antonio, and Corrientes on the east ; Horn and Proward on the south ; and Parina, San Lorenzo, and San Francisco, on the uses.

Cape Gallinas is the most northerly point of the continent, Cape Branco the most casterly, and Cape Parina the most casterly. Cape Froward is the most southerly point of the mainland, but Cape Horn (which is the southernmost point of an extensive group of islands) is a more celebrated and better known promontory.¹

3. Islands.—South America has few islands. Among the chief of them are the Falkland Islands and South Georgia, off the south-east coast; the group called Tierra del Fuego, in the south; the islands of the Patagonian Archipelago, Chiloë Island, Juan Fernandes, and the Galapagos Islands, on the vost side of the continent; with Margarita, Curaçao, and a few others in the Caribbean Sea, on the northern coast.

Tierra del Fuego is divided from the mainland of South America by the Strait of Magellan, and from Staten Island by the Strait of Le Maire.

The islands that lie off the western coast of Patagonia are included under the name of the **Patagonian Archipelago**. They belong, physically, to the chain of the Andes, and are only divided from the mainland by narrow channels which penetrate the mountain region.

(851)

^{1.} Cf. North Cape and Cape Nordkyn in Europe.

MOUNTAINS.—South America is traversed by the loftiest and the most continuous system of highlands in the New World, namely, the Andes. Like North America, this continent exhibits the characteristic fact that its most elevated portions lie along the western side, and it exhibits this in a more eminent degree than is the case in the northerly half of the New World. The Andes lie much nearer to the Pacific Coast than the Rocky Mountains, and leave only a narrow plain between their western base and the sea.

South America has three mountain systems—the Andean, the Parime, and the Brasilian. The Andean system is much higher and far more massive than either of the other two, and, with the exception of the Himalayas, surpasses every other mountain chain on the earth's surface in altitude and continuity.

1. The Andes run in the direction of north and south, through the entire length of South America, from the Isthmus of Panama to Cape Horn. They form in some parts two, and in others three, distinct chains, with high plateaux enclosed between. The highest summit is **Sorata**, on the western border of Bolivia. This mountain reaches 24,812 feet above the see, and is higher than any other in the New World. Even this great altitude, however, is 4,000 feet lower than that of the culminating peaks of the Himalayas.

Many other mountains in the vast system of the Andes exceed 20,000 feet in height, and no less than 20 peaks are upwards of 19,000 feet in height. A great number of snow-covered summits occur in the ranges enclosing the elevated tableland of Titicaca. Numerous high summits are also found in the immediate neighbourhood of the Equator: these were at one time supposed to be the loftiest mountains on the globe. Towards their southward extremity, the Andes diminish greatly in height, and make much closer approach to the neighbouring ocean. In Patagonia, the mountain system rises abruptly out of the waters of the Pacific. Through their entire course the Andes rise above the line of perpetual snow.

A great number of active volcances occur in the Andes, especially on the borders of Chill and in the neighbourhood of the Equator. The highest of them are Chimborazo (20,545 feet), and Cotopaxi (19,613 feet), both of which are within two degrees south of the Equator. Earthquakes are of frequent occurrence in most parts of the Andean region.

2. The Parime System comprises several ranges traversing the plateau which rises between the low plains of the Orinoco on the north, and the Amazon on the south. The main chain extends from the Casiquiare (the best known of those remarkable streams which connect the Orinoco basin with that of the Amazon) eastwards to the coast, near the mouth of the Amazon, and is known as the Sierra Parime in the west, and the Sierra Acaray in the east. The average elevation of these ranges is probably 4,000 feet, or about 2,000 feet higher than the plateau which they traverse.

8. The Brazilian System consists of numerous chains, some of which lie near the coast, others at a considerable distance inland. The coast ranges are the loftiest portions of the system; the highest points, however, seldom exceed 5,000 feet.

TABLELANDS.—The South American tablelands are found chiefly within the regions traversed by the Andes, and are enclosed between the double chains which are formed through large portions of that mountain system.

The highest among them is the *Plateau of Titicaca*, within Bolivia and Peru, which contains the large lake of that name, at an elevation of nearly 13,000 feet above the sea. The *Plateau* of *Quito*, which is crossed by the line of the equator, is at an elevation of 9,000 feet. There are other portions of the mountain system in which the enclosed plateaux—bordered on either hand by snowy summits—exhibit similar elevations. These plateaux resemble the interior tablelands of the Asiatic continent, but are inferior to them both in altitude and in lateral dimensions.

PLAINS.—The whole interior of South America is but of moderate elevation. A series of great plains stretches from the shores of the Caribbean Sea southward to the estuary of the La Plata and the mouth of the Rio Negro. These plains separate the Andes from the mountain systems of Guiana and Brazil. They are naturally divided into three great portions, namely :—

- 1. The llanos, or grassy plains of the Orinoco valley.
- 2. The selvas, or forest plains of the Amazon valley.
- 3. The pampas, or plains of the La Plata region.

(1.) The **llanos** or **savannahs** resemble in general features the prairies of North America. They are vast natural meadows, portions of which are annually overflowed by the rivers.

(2.) The selvas exhibit a dense growth of natural forest. The forest-covered tracts are succeeded to the southward by grassy plains, which stretch from the upper portion of the basin of the Amazon into that of the Paraguay and other tributaries of the Rio de la Plata.

(3.) The **pampas** are vast plains which, according to the changes of the season, are alternately covered with herbage or with gigantic thistles. They stretch from the estuary of the La Plata to the base of the Andes.

BIVERS.—Nearly the whole of the South American continent has its slopes directed towards the Atlantic, and all its larger rivers consequently discharge into that ocean. The Andes lie so near to the Pacific as to leave no room for the formation of any considerable streams upon their western side.

Three of the rivers of South America are greatly superior to the others in magnitude and geographical importance, namely, the Orinoco, the Amazon, and the Rio de la Plata. The Amazon alone drains an area equal to more than a third of the continent, and the three together water nearly three-fifths of its total extent.

Of the smaller rivers, the principal are the Atrato and Magdalena, to the west of the Orinoco; the Essequibo, Demerara, Berbice, Corentyn, Surinam, and Maroni, between the Orinoco and the Amazon; the Maranhão, Paranahyba, San Francisco, and Parahyba, between the Amazon and the La Plata; and the Colorado, Negro, Chubut, and Santa Cruz, south of the La Plata.

1. The river **Orinoco**, which has a length of 1,500 miles, waters the region of the llanos or grassy plains. It rises in the western defiles of the Parime Mountains, and is joined by numerous tributaries in its circuitous course to the sea. The most remarkable feature of the Orinoco is that, about 130 miles below its source, the river divides into several branches, the best known of which flows to the south-westward, under the name of the **Casiquiare**, and joins the Rio Negro, an affluent of the Amazon. The Orinoco is thus connected, by a natural channel, with the basin of the river Amazon. There is no other instance in the world of the permanent bifurcation of a river of such magnitude, though a few similar examples occur elsewhere among streams on a smaller scale. 2. The **Amazon** has its source in the Andes. The branch which rises in the small lake of Lauricocha is regarded as the main stream of the river, but there are other branches of equal or greater length. In all, the Amazon³ has a length of 8,900 miles, so that it rivals the Mississippi. It receives a wast number of tributary streams, the principal of which is the river Madeira.

3. The **Rio de la Plata³** is an immense estuary, formed by the junction of the rivers *Parama* and *Uruguay*. The Parana waters a vast area in the eastern interior of the continent, and is joined, 600 miles above the sea, by the river *Paraguay*, which drains a large portion of the more central plains.

LAKES.—South America has few lakes. The largest is Lake Titicaca, lying on the highest plateau of the Andes. It has fresh water, and discharges a considerable river,—the Desaguadero—which flows to the south-eastward and terminates in an extensive marsh.

The other lakes lie adjacent to the coast. Among them are *Lake Maracaibo*, in the north; with *Lake Patos* and others on the eastern coast, a short distance to the northward of the Rio de la Plata.

CLIMATE.—South America has on the whole a warmer climate than North America, but its higher latitudes are colder than the corresponding latitudes in the Northern Hemisphere.

Although two-thirds of the continent are within the Torrid Zone, yet the tropical belt of South America is not so intensely hot as the Equatorial Zone of Africa, because (1) the extent of solid, unbroken land is not so great; (2) the configuration of South America permits the rain-bearing winds from the North and South Atlantic to pass over the greater part of its surface, which is not the case in Africa; (3) the quantity of rain which falls in the tropical parts of South America, with the exception of a comparatively small and extremely arid district on the western coast between the Andes and the Pacific, is generally very great, exceeding in amount the rainfall not only of tropical Africa but of any other region in the world; (4) owing to this, the forests in South America are much more extensive and the vegetation generally far more luxuriant than is the case in Africa, and thus the soil is less exposed to the direct action of the sun's rays; (5) the mountain-land and uplands in tropical South America are higher and of greater extent than those of Africa; (6) South America are of the former continent is washed by the cold Antarctic Drift Current, while the temperature along the Africa coast is not thus lowered.

PRODUCTIONS.—The natural productions of South America are extremely rich and varied.

1. Plants.—The combined heat and moisture which distinguish such large portions of South America tend to foster luxuriance of vegetation, and the vast forests of Brazil and Guiana surpass in extent and density of growth those of any other region in the world.

Maize, cassava or manioc, cocca, tobacco, and the potato are the characteristic food-plants of the South American continent. The various species of cinchona, or Peruvian bark, are native to the tropical regions of the western coast; their valuable medicinal properties were known to the Indians prior to the first visit of Europeans to the New World. The caoutchouc or indiarubber tree' is a native production of the Brazilian forests, which comprehend a vast num-

2. That is, River of Silver-so called by its dis-

^{1.} The Amazon and the Mississippi are the two longest rivers on the globe. Either of them surpasses, by several hundred miles, the length of the greatest rivers of the Eastern Hemisphere, and their waters drain vastly more extensive areas.

coverers, under the erroneous impression that the countries which it waters were rich in that ore.

ore. "Indiarubber," or caoutchouc, is a gum which exudes from the bark of the tree, in which incisions are made for the purpose at a particular period of the year.

ber of woods of the most valuable description—among them mahogany, Brazilwood, logwood, and numerous others. The mats shrub of Paraguay, generally known as yerba mats, is characteristic of that country, and its leaves are used like those of the tea-plant in other parts of the world.

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2. Animals.—South America is marvellously rich in birds, most of them brilliantly coloured, and these, with large **reptiles** and an endless variety of **insects**, are the chief characteristics of the abundant animal life on this continent. The **mammalia**, however, are neither so large nor so formidable as these of Africa or Asia.

The larger animals of the Old World are represented in South America by much smaller and less powerful species. The African lion is represented by the **puma**, and the Asiatic tiger by the **laguar**. These animals, which are the most formidable of the carnivora of South America, also occur in Mexico and Central America. The camel of the Old World is represented by the **llama**, an animal peculiar to South America. The proper llama, and also the various species known as the **alpaca**, vicufia, and guanaco, all belong to the high region of the Andes, where they range from Chili to Colombia. The llama belongs to the order of ruminating quadrupeds, and, like the camel, is used as a beast of burden. The **tapir** is another of the animals peculiar to South America, and is distinguished by the peculiar form of its snout, which bends inwards; it belongs to the order of *pachydermata* (thick-skinned), like the elephant of the Old World. The sloth, ant-ceater, and **armadillo** are natives of South America, and represent in its zoology the order of *edentata* (toothless animals). The *quadrumana* (monkeys, &c.) are exceedingly numerous in the forests of Brazil, but are of different species from the like animals in the eastern half of the globe. The **opossums**, which abound in the forests of South America, and one variety of which is common in the northern half of the New World, belong to the order of the marsupial (pouched) quadrupeds—nowhere else found but in the Australian division of the globe.

Among the birds of South America the most characteristic are the condor of the Andes, various kinds of vulture, an immense variety of parrots with the most gorgeous plumage, a peculiar kind of ostrich, the brilliantly-coloured toucan, and over 150 species of humming-birds-most exquisitely beautiful miniature birds, varying in size from that of a bee to that of a wren.

Both reptile and insect life are favoured by the combined heat and moisture —with its consequent luxuriance of vegetation—of tropical South America. The **boa-constrictor**, the largest of the serpent tribe, is found in the swampy plains, and the alligator abounds in most of the rivers within the warmer portions of the continent.

3. <u>Minerals</u>—South America is extremely rich in minerals, and for a long period its mines of silver and gold were the richest in the world.

The whole region traversed by the Andes abounds in gold and silver, while the goldfields of Brazil and Venezuela are among the richest, though not as yet the most productive in the world. Valuable ores of copper, tin, lead, and iron are widely distributed, but copper only is mined to any extent. The principal copper mines are in Chili. Good coal is also mined in the south of Chili.

South America is also rich in precious stones; the diamonds of Brazil are "of the first water," and Colombia is noted for emeralds of surpassing beauty.

INHABITANTS.—The total population of South America does not exceed 30,000,000—a number that is extremely small compared with its vast area and its almost unlimited capabilities.

About a third of the whole belong to the white race, and are mostly of Spanish or Portuguese origin. With the exception of Brazil, which was colonized by Portugal, nearly all South America was formerly under Spanish rule.

The native Indians of the New World are more numerous, in the present day, in South America than in North America, and perhaps number not less than five millions. The Negroes (chiefly found in Brazil, where they form about one-seventh of the population) number about three or four millions. Mixed noot of "Mestizoes"—principally of European and Indian blood—make up the remaining number. Spanish is the prevailing language all over the conti-uent, except in Brazil, where Portuguese is spoken. There are almost as many Indian languages and dialects as there are tribes.

DIVISIONS.-With the exception of the British, Dutch, and French colonies in Guiana, South America is divided into 10 Republics-4 in the east, 4 in the west, and 2 in the interior.

The Eastern Republics are Venezuela, Brasil, Uruguay, and the Argentine Republic. The Western Republics are Chili, Peru, Ecuador, and Colombia. The two Inland Republics are Bolivia and Paraguay.

EXAMINATION QUESTIONS.

By what Isthmus is South America joined to North America? What seas wash the op-posite shores of this isthmus?
 How is South America bounded? In what does it terminate to the southward?
 What gulfs occur on the coasts of South America?

America ?

America? 4. Name some of the principal capes of South America. Which is the most northern point? Which is the most southern? 5. Point on the map to the following:-the Pakkiand Islands, Juan Fernandez. Tierra del Fuego, the Patagonian Archipelago, and the Galapages Islands. 6. Name the principal mountain systems of South America

6. Name the principal mountain systems of South America. 7. Comparing the highest in the Old World, which exhibit the greatest altitude ? Name the highest point in either hemisphere. 8. What tablelands belong to South America for a vast lowhand plain, and what are its three great divisions?

divisions?

10. Where is the region of (1) the lianos, (2) the selvas, (3) the pampas, and what are the characteristic features of each ?

11. Name as many as you can of the rivers of South America. 12. Which are the three largest rivers of South

18. In what way is the river Orinoco connected with the basin of the Amason? 14. What two rivers units

which the basin of the Amazon?
14. What two rivers unite in the estuary of the Rio de la Plata?
13. Name the largest lake in South America.
16. By what conditions is the climate of South America distinguished?
17. Name some of the more important among the food-plant that are native to South America.
18. What plants, celebrated for their medicinal properties, are native to South America.
19. Mention some other productions of the vegetable world that belong to this region.
20. Name some of the animals that are most characteristic of the South America?
21. Name some of the animals that are most characteristic of the South America funnish the characteristic of the South America funnish the precious metals? Where are diamonds, copper, and coal found?
22. What races of mankind are included among the population of South America? What proportion of the whole are whites?
23. Name the chief divisions of South America.
24. To whom does Guiana belong?

BRAZIL.

BRAZIL¹ is the largest country of South America. It embraces a vast portion of the eastern shores of that continent, and stretches over nearly half its entire extent.

BOUNDARIES.—Brazil is bounded on the north by Venezuela and Guiana; on the north-east and east by the Atlantic Ocean; on the south and south-west by Uruguay, Argentina, and Paraguay; on the west by Bolivia, Peru, Ecuador, and Colombia.²

^{1.} Brazil was first discovered by Cabral in 1500, | Portuguese compared to red-hot coals (Portu-and was named by him Tierra de Santa Crus-guese, Brazel. the "Land of the Holy Cross." The name Brazil 4. Brazil thus borders on every country in is derived from the red Brazil wood, which the | South America with the exception of Chili.

EXTENT.—The area of Brazil is estimated at 3,219,000 square miles,¹ thus comprising nearly half of the South American continent, and not much less than Europe.

The greatest length, from Cape Orange on the north to San Pedro on the south, is 2,500 miles. The greatest breadth, from Cape San Roque on the east to the Peruvian borders on the west, is 2,600 miles.

COASTS.—Generally regular and unbroken. Total length, 3;700 miles. The principal capes are Orange, San Roque, and Frio. The chief inlets are the estuaries of the Amazon, the Pará, and the Maranhão, and the Bays of Bahia and Rio de Janeiro.

NATURAL FRATURES.—The great features of Brazil are the vast forest-covered plains or *selvas*, which are watered by the largest rivers in the world. Its western boundary nowhere reaches the Andes, and even the highest portions of its surface attain only a moderate elevation above the sea.

The mountains of Brazil rarely exceed 3,000 feet in height. The greater part of the region over which they stretch forms a moderately-alevated plateau, seldom exceeding 1,000 feet above the sea, and traversed by hills of gentle ascent. The range known as the Serra do Mar, which stretches along part of the coast, exhibits a steeper acclivity. The other chief ranges are the Serra Espinhaço,² and the Serra dos Vertentes.

Rivers.—Brazil includes the vastly greater portion of the immense valley of the Amazon, and a small part of the valleys of the Parana and the Paraguay. The entire valley of the San Francisco is within its limits.

The Amazon is the chief river of Brazil. It is throughout navigable by vessels of considerable tonnage, and its stream, at between 400 and 500 miles above the sea, has a breadth of several miles, which increases to 50 miles and upwards immediately above its mouth. The Amazon has numerous tributaries, among which the Negro, on its left or northern bank, the Madeira, Tapajoo, Xingu, and Tocantins, on the right or southern bank, are the most considerable. Every one of these is a large river. Brazil, indeed, abounds in inland waters, and possesses capabilities for inland navigation such as belong to few other regions.

Climate.—The climate of Brazil is thoroughly tropical. With the exception of the extreme southern provinces, the whole country is within the Torrid Zone.

Productions.—The diamond and other precious stones, with gold, silver, iron, copper, lead, are among its productions. But the mineral wealth of Brazil is greatly inferior in importance to the vegetable produce of its soil, and to the inexhaustible treasures of its forests.

INHABITANTS.—The population of Brazil is upwards of 14,000,000, more than a third of whom are whites, almost exclusively of Portuguese descent.

A large proportion of the population consists of Negroes who, until recently, were slaves but now possess the full privileges of citizens, and are in all respects on terms of equality with the whites. The remainder consists of Indian and mixed races. At the scaports, the population is chiefly European or of European descent. There are large German Colonies in the States of Rio Grande do Sul and Santa Catharina. The Portuguese language is generally spoken by the people of Brazil. The Roman Catholic religion is followed, but there is no connection between Church and State.

^{1. 56} times that of England and Wales.

^{2.} Highest points: Rambs, 5,960 feet; and Racolumi, 5,750 feet.

INDUSTRIES .- Brazil is mainly an agricultural country, but only a small fraction of its soil has been brought under cultivation. It possesses the highest fertility, and yields the most abundant harvests.

Coffee, sugar, and cotton are the staple productions, and the first-named has become increasingly important within recent years. Rice, cocca, maize, and tobacco, with the manico and other articles of native growth, are also extensively produced. The manico yields the cassava-bread, the chief article of food to the native Indian population.

COMMERCE.—Brazil carries on a large foreign trade, principally with the United States and Great Britain, and very largely also with Germany and France. Annual value, 44 millions sterling-imports 21 millions ; exports, 23 millions.¹

The most important port is that of RIO DE JANEIRO, and its principal export is coffee, which amounts in value to nine-tenths of the total exports thence.

Internal communication in Brazil is facilitated by an unrivalled system of river-navigation, supplemented by about 6,000 miles of railways, connecting the chief towns on the seaboard with the interior.

GOVERNMENT.-The United States of Brazil form a Federal Republic.²

The executive authority is exercised by the President, and the legislative power by a National Congress, which consists of the Chamber of Deputies and the Senate. Each State in the Union has its own Government, distinct and independent as regards local affairs. The annual Revenue amounts to about 17 millions a year, and the Expenditure to 19 millions. The Public Debt is about 140 millions starling. The standing army, service in which is com-pulsory, consists of about 16,000 men, and the navy includes 60 armoured vessels, 9 of which are *ironciads*.

DIVISIONS.—The Republic of Brazil includes 20 States and **1 Federal District** (the city of Rio and its environs).

The Maritime States of Brazil are Pará, Maranhão, Piauhy, and Ceará, on the north-cast coast ; Rio Grande do Norte, Parahyba, Pernambuco, Alagoas, Sergipe, Bahia, Espirito Santo, Rio de Janeiro, and the Federal District of Rio, on the east coast ; with San Paulo, Paraná, Santa Catharina, and Rio Grande do Sul, on the south-east coast. The Inland States are Amazonas and Matto Grosso in the west, and Goyaz and Minas Geraes in the east.

The capital of Brazil is Rio de Janeiro,³ which stands on the western side of a fine bay, one of the most magnificent of natural harbours. Rio de Janeiro or Rio, as it is often called) has 360,000 inhabitants, and, with the exception of Buenos Ayres in the Argentine Republic, is the largest city in South America. Bahia (140), 800 miles to the northward of Rio, is the second city in the empire, and is also the seat of a great foreign trade. **Pernambuco** (180) ranks third in importance. This place consists really of several adjoining towns, which have grown into one, and of which that distinguished as Recife—the business quarter of Pernambuco—is the most considerable. Pernambuco is 450 miles north of Bahia.

The most northerly seaport of Brazil is **Par**á, which is situated on a fine estuary called the Rio do Pará, upon the north-eastern coast. Pará is by

1. The trade of Brazil with the United King-dom amounts to about 19 millions stering—im-brits therefrom, 7 millions; exports thereto, 5 millions. The principal exports throm Brazil to the United Kingdom are raw cotton, sugar, indiarubber, and coffee. 3. Brazil was, until the bloodless revolution of November 18th, 1889, the only country in South

position the great outport for the Amazon valley-a region of which the vast capabilities are as yet but little developed.

In the extreme south of Brazil, the two chief seats of commerce are the towns of San Paulo and Rio Grande do Sul. The first named lies upwards of 200 miles to the south-westward of Rio, and some miles inland. The maritime town of **Santos** constitutes its port. Rio Grande do Sul is near the southern extremity of the country, at the outlet of the large lake or rather lagoon of Patos

QUESTIONS ON BRAZIL.

1. How is Brazil bounded? What is its area in square miles? 2. What constitutes the great natural feature of Brazil? Name the principal mountain ranges

of Brazil.

a. Name the principal rivers.
 a. Name the principal rivers.
 b. Say what you know of the Amazon in its course through Brazil.
 b. Describe briefly the climate and natural productions of Brazil.

6. What races of people constitute the popula-

O'N DIGAZILL
 Gion of Brazil? What language is spoken by its population? What form of religion prevails?
 To what is the industry of the Brazilian population chiefly devoted?
 Eunder what form of government is Brazil?
 When did Brazil become a Republic?
 Into how many States is Brazil divided?
 Name the capital and other chief cities of Brazil.
 UNDER and the forms of Park, San Paulo, and Bio Grande do Sul?

and Rio Grande do Sul?

GUIANA.

GUIANA,¹ an extensive region in the north-eastern part of South America, is bounded on the north and north-east by the Atlantic Ocean, on the south by Brazil, and on the west by Brazil and Venezuela. It is divided into three parts, the most westerly of which belongs to Great Britain, the central to Holland, and the eastern to France, which are hence called British, Dutch, and French Guiana.

All the three divisions of Guiana are washed by the Atlantic Ocean, along the coasts of which extends a low plain of great natural fertility. The country rises thence towards the interior, and stretches south as far as the range of the Sierra Acarav.

The numerous rivers of Guiana are the most important among its natural features. The uniform direction of their main streams is from south to north, and they all discharge into the Atlantic.

British Guiana includes the rivers Mazaruni, Essequibo, Demerara, and Berpice : the Corentyn divides it from Dutch Guiana.

Dutch Guiana includes the river Surinam, and has the rivers Corentyn and Maroni on its western and eastern frontiers respectively.

French Guiana is bounded by the river Maroni on the west and by the Oyapok on the east.

All Guiana has a tropical climate. It is situated, indeed, within the heart of the Torrid Zone. But the climate, although undoubtedly trying to Europeans. is much less unhealthy than that of most other regions within the Tropics. The deadly fevers that prevail on the African coasts are unknown in South America. The soil is exuberantly fertile, the natural wealth of its forests is unbounded, and gold and other minerals have been discovered.

1. BRITISH GUIANA, the only British territory on the mainland of South America, extends along the north-eastern coast, from the mouth of the Orinoco to that of the Corentyn, and stretches in-

1. Guiana is so called from an Indian tribe, | 1890. The British portion of the country was the Guagences. It was discovered by Columbus finally ceded to England in 1814. In 1898, and was first settled by the Dutch in

land for more than 400 miles to an as yet undetermined boundary. The colony has an area of 109,000 square miles, and a population of 300.000, of whom about 20.000 are whites.¹

With a total area of twice that of England, only 88.000 acres are as yet under cultivation in this the most favoured of the three Guianas. Settlement is, in fact, almost confined to the narrow but exceedingly productive coast region, and here the predominant industry is the cultivation of the sugar-cane, and sugar forms over 90 per cent. of the export trade of the colony.

The government of the colony consists of a Governor appointed by the Crown, and a Court of Policy—a Legislative Council of 9 members, 5 of whom are elected. Georgetown (50), on the Demerara, a short distance above its mouth, is the capital. The only other considerable town is New Amsterdam (8), on the Berbice.

2. DUTCH GUIANA³ or Surinam includes the middle portion of Guiana, and is divided from British Guiana on the west by the River Corentyn, and from French Guiana on the east by the River Maroni. The area is about 46,000 square miles, and the population about 60.000, mostly Negroes.

The commercial products are sugar, cacao, coffee, cotton, rice, bananas and other fruits, rum, molasses, and gold. The government is in the hands of a Governor, assisted by a Council and a Representative Assembly. The capital is Paramaribo (28), on the River Surinam.

FRENCH GUIANA,³ or Cayenne, has an area of 46,850 square miles, and a population of about 26,000, one-sixth of whom are convicts.

Coffee and manioc are the chief products of the colony, which is, however, regarded as a mere penal settlement. The capital is Cayenne (8), a miserable place on a small island which adjoins the coast.

VENEZUELA.

VENEZUELA⁴ embraces part of the northern division of South America, and is bounded on the north by the Caribbean Sea, on the east by the Atlantic Ocean and British Guiana, on the south by Brazil, and on the west by Colombia. The area of Venezuela is estimated at 632,000 square miles, which is 10 times greater than that of England and Wales.

NATURAL FEATURES.—Venezuela includes the greater part of the basin of the Orinoco, with its extensive savannahs or llanos. These vast grassy plains are succeeded, at intervals, by forest-covered tracts of surprising richness.

The river Orinoco is first in importance among the natural features of Venezuela. It is joined by a great number of tributary streams, several among which rival the larger rivers of most other lands. About its outlet the Orinoco forms a delta of vast extent, intersected by numberless channels.

^{1.} Although a British colony, most of the whites are Portuguese from Madeira and the Cape Verde Islands. 2. Taken by the English in 1650, but coeded to the Dutch in 1659. Again taken by the English in 1799 and 1894, but finally restored in 1814.

Settled by the French in 1604. Held by the British from 1809 to 1814.
 4 Venezuela, little Venice. So called by the Spaniards from the Indian pile-houses which they found at the entrance of Lake Marscalbo. The present republic of Venezuela was formed in 1850.

The climate of Venezuela, though hot, is not unhealthy, excepting near the coast and in some of the low grounds that border on the rivers.

"The surface of Venezuela is naturally divided into three distinct zones the agricultural, the pastoral, and the forest zone. In the first are grown the sugar-cane, coffee, cocca, cereals, &c.; the second affords runs for cattle; and in the third, tropical products such as caoutchoue, tonca beans, copaiba, vanilla, growing wild, are worked by the inhabitants." The Venezuelans possess millions of cattle, sheep, and horses, and their country is rich in metals and minerals. The Venezuelan goldfields are extremely rich, and there are extensive deposits of copper. The salt-mines yield a large revenue to the Government.

INHABITANTS.—Venezuela had, in 1890, a population of 2[‡] millions, among whom the Mestizoes, or half-castes of mixed Spanish and Indian blood, are by much the most numerous.

Commerce.—The chief commercial products are sugar, cocca, coffee, tobacco, and cotton, with hides and cattle, gold and copper ore. The exports are valued at about 34 millions sterling, and the imports at 24 millions. The chief ports are LA GUAYRA, MARACAIBO, CIUDAD BOLIVAR, and PUERTO CABALLO.

GOVERNMENT.—The Republic of Venezuela contains 8 States, 8 Territories, and 3 Districts.

The various States are practically self-governing, the great object of their union being that of common defence. The Territories and Districts are directly controlled by the Central Government. The Revenue is a little over, and the Expenditure under, $1\frac{1}{2}$ millions sterling. The Public Debt is about 4 millions sterling.

Towns.—The capital of Venezuela is the city of **GARACAS** (77), delightfully situated in a fertile mountain valley, 3,000 feet above the sea, and 12 miles distant from the shores of the Caribbean Sea. La Guayra (14), on the coast, forms its port, and has a large amount of foreign trade. Cumana and Barcelona, both to the eastward of Carácas, are also of some commercial importance. Cumana has a magnificent natural harbour. The island of Margarita, to the north of Cumana, belongs to this State.

The only other towns of any note are Valencia (39), and Maracaibo (34). Valencia is south-west of Caracas, and, like that city, lies a few miles inland; Puerto Caballo is its port. Maracaibo is on the west side of the channel, which connects the lake of that name with the sea. Bolivar or Angostura is the chief place in the valley of the Orinoco.

COLOMBIA.

THE REPUBLIC OF COLOMBIA is in the north-west corner of South America, and is bounded on the *north* by the Caribbean Sea, on the *east* by Venezuela and Brazil, on the *south* by Ecuador, and on the *west* by the Pacific Ocean.

The total area of the Republic is estimated at 331,000 square miles, or nearly 6 times that of England and Wales.

The population is about $3\frac{1}{2}$ millions, about one-half of whom are Whites (of Spanish descent), and Mestizoes of mixed Indian and Spanish blood. The rest are Indians, a large number of whom are *Indios bravos*, or uncivilized. The State Religion, as in all the other Spanish republics of South America, is Roman Catholic. Primary education is free, but not compulsory.

MOUNTAINS.—South America is traversed by the loftiest and the most continuous system of highlands in the New World, namely, the Andes. Like North America, this continent exhibits the characteristic fact that its most elevated portions lie along the western side, and it exhibits this in a more eminent degree than is the case in the northerly half of the New World. The Andes lie much nearer to the Pacific Coast than the Rocky Mountains, and leave only a narrow plain between their western base and the sea.

South America has three mountain systems—the Andean, the Parime, and the Braxilian. The Andean system is much higher and far more massive than either of the other two, and, with the exception of the Himalayas, surpasses every other mountain chain on the earth's surface in altitude and continuity.

1. The Andes run in the direction of north and south, through the entire length of South America, from the Isthmus of Panama to Cape Horn. They form in some parts two, and in others three, distinct chains, with high plateaux enclosed between. The highest summit is **Sorata**, on the western border of Bolivia. This mountain reaches 24,812 feet above the sea, and is higher than any other in the New World. Even this great altitude, however, is 4,000 feet lower than that of the culminating peaks of the Himalayss.

Many other mountains in the vast system of the Andes exceed 20,000 feet in height, and no less than 20 peaks are upwards of 19,000 feet in height. A great number of snow-covered summits occur in the ranges enclosing the elevated tableland of Titicaca. Numerous high summits are also found in the immediate neighbourhood of the Equator: these were at one time supposed to be the loftiest mountains on the globe. Towards their southward extremity, the Andes diminish greatly in height, and make much closer approach to the neighbouring ocean. In Patagonia, the mountain system rises abruptly out of the waters of the Pacific. Through their entire course the Andes rise above the line of perpetual snow.

A great number of active volcances occur in the Andes, especially on the borders of Chili and in the neighbourhood of the Equator. The highest of them are Chimborazo (20,545 feet), and Cotogazi (19,613 feet), both of which are within two degrees south of the Equator. Earthquakes are of frequent occurrence in most parts of the Andean region.

2. The Parime System comprises several ranges traversing the plateau which rises between the low plains of the Orinoco on the north, and the Amazon on the south. The main chain extends from the Casiquiare (the best known of those remarkable streams which connect the Orinoco basin with that of the Amazon) eastwards to the coast, near the mouth of the Amazon, and is known as the Sierra Parime in the west, and the Sierra Acaray in the east. The average elevation of these ranges is probably 4,000 feet, or about 2,000 feet higher than the plateau which they traverse.

3. The Braxilian System consists of numerous chains, some of which lie near the coast, others at a considerable distance inland. The coast ranges are the loftiest portions of the system; the highest points, however, seldom exceed 5,000 feet.

TABLELANDS.—The South American tablelands are found chiefly within the regions traversed by the Andes, and are enclosed between the double chains which are formed through large portions of that mountain system.

The highest among them is the *Plateau of Titicaca*, within Bolivia and Peru, which contains the large lake of that name, at an elevation of nearly 18,000 feet above the sea. The Plateau of Quito, which is crossed by the line of the equator, is at an elevation of 9,000 feet. There are other portions of the mountain system in which the enclosed plateaux—bordered on either hand by snowy summits—exhibit similar elevations. These plateaux resemble the interior tablelands of the Asiatic continent, but are inferior to them both in altitude and in lateral dimensions.

PLAINS.—The whole interior of South America is but of moderate elevation. A series of great plains stretches from the shores of the Caribbean Sea southward to the estuary of the La Plata and the mouth of the Rio Negro. These plains separate the Andes from the mountain systems of Guiana and Brazil. They are naturally divided into three great portions, namely :—

1. The llanos, or grassy plains of the Orinoco valley.

2. The selvas, or forest plains of the Amazon valley.

3. The pampas, or plains of the La Plata region.

(1.) The **llanos** or **savannahs** resemble in general features the prairies of North America. They are vast natural meadows, portions of which are annually overflowed by the rivers.

(2.) The selvas exhibit a dense growth of natural forest. The forest-covered tracts are succeeded to the southward by grassy plains, which stretch from the upper portion of the basin of the Amazon into that of the Paraguay and other tributaries of the Rio de la Plats.

(3.) The **pampas** are vast plains which, according to the changes of the season, are alternately covered with herbage or with gigantic thistles. They stretch from the estuary of the La Plata to the base of the Andes.

RIVERS.—Nearly the whole of the South American continent has its slopes directed towards the Atlantic, and all its larger rivers consequently discharge into that ocean. The Andes lie so near to the Pacific as to leave no room for the formation of any considerable streams upon their western side.

Three of the rivers of South America are greatly superior to the others in magnitude and geographical importance, namely, the Orinoco, the Amazon, and the Rio de la Plata. The Amazon alone drains an area equal to more than a third of the continent, and the three together water nearly three-fifths of its total extent.

Of the smaller rivers, the principal are the Atrato and Magdalena, to the west of the Orinoco; the Essequibo, Demerara, Berbice, Corentyn, Surinam, and Maroni, between the Orinoco and the Amazon; the Maranhão, Paranahyba, San Francisco, and Parahyba, between the Amazon and the La Plata; and the Colorado, Negro, Chubut, and Santa Cruz, south of the La Plata.

1. The river **Orinoco**, which has a length of 1,500 miles, waters the region of the llanos or grassy plains. It rises in the western defiles of the Parime Mountains, and is joined by numerous tributaries in its circuitous course to the sea. The most remarkable feature of the Orinoco is that, about 130 miles below its source, the river divides into several branches, the best known of which flows to the south-westward, under the name of the **Casiquiare**, and joins the Rio Negro, an affuent of the Amazon. The Orinoco is thus connected, by a natural channel, with the basin of the river Amazon. There is no other instance in the world of the permanent bifurcation of a river of such magnitude, though a few similar examples occur elsewhere among streams on a smaller scale.

PERU.

THE REPUBLIC OF PERU is on the western side of South America, and is bounded on the *north* by the Republic of Ecuador, on the *east* by Brazil and Bolivia, on the *south* by Bolivia and Chili, and on the *west* by the Pacific Ocean.

Peru has a coast-line of about 1,300 miles, and an area of 500,000 square miles—about 10 times the size of England.

The population of Peru is about 8 millions, three-fifths of whom are Indians, the rest are Mestizces of mixed race, and Whites of Spanish descent.

NATURAL FEATURES.—Peru includes (1) a large portion of the Andes; (2) a plain along the Pacific Coast, between the mountains and the sea; and (3) a more extensive plain which stretches from the eastern base of the mountains into the interior.

1. The portions of the Andes which traverse Peru include some of the highest elevations of the mountain system. Cold and barren tablelands, which rival in elevation the lofty plateaux of Central Asia, are included between the exterior chains or cordilleras. The Tableland of Pasco (between 10° and 11° S. lat.) reaches 11,000 feet, and the tableland which contains the Lake of Titicaca, further to the southward, is still more elevated.

2. The *Coast Plain* constitutes, however, the most remarkable feature in the physical geography of Peru. It is, almost throughout its entire extent, an arid and sandy region, in which the only verdure found is on the immediate banks of the numerous short streams by which it is traversed.

3. Peru includes the upper portion of the great river *Amazon*, and the chief tributaries by which it is joined, either within the mountain region, or shortly after its issue from the mountains.

CLIMATE.—The climate of Peru varies with the most striking differences in its physical conformation. The mountain region is cold. The coast plain is as intensely hot and arid as the *tehama* of the Arabian peninsula—a tract which it resembles in many respects. Rain is almost unknown here, and the dense mists which are of periodical recurrence are the only source of moisture. The plains to the east of the mountains are watered by abundant rains.

PRODUCTIONS.—Peru has great agricultural resources and still greater mineral wealth, but its mines of gold, silver, and quick-silver, long the richest in the world, are now only worked to a limited extent.

All the rich productions of the South American forests—gums, balsams, .cinchona-bark, vanilla, sarsaparilla, and the caoutchouc-tree—abound in Peru, and the food-plants of Europe thrive at various elevations among the mountain region. The guano procured from the little group of the Chincha Islands (13° 40' S. lat.) for many years formed one of the chief items in the Peruvian export trade. These and other deposits are now to a great extent exhausted, but recent surveys show the existence of rich deposits of this invaluable fertilizer on the coast of the mainland. The export of sugar has largely increased within recent years. The development of the resources of the country has been greatly facilitated by the construction of an extensive system of railways. The disastrous war with Chili so disorganized the trade and industry of the country, that they have not yet regained their previously flourishing condition. Commerce.-The commerce of Peru is chiefly with Great Britain and Germany. Annual value, about 3 millions sterling.

The chief exports are cotton, hids, skins, straw hats, sugar, silver, cinchona, cocoa, and wool (sheep and alpaca). The exports and imports from the United Kingdom are valued at about 1 million sterling a year.

GOVERNMENT.—Peru, like the rest of the South American States, is a Republic.¹

Towns.—The capital of the Republic is the city of LIMA (180), which is 6 miles distant from the coast of the Pacific. Lima was founded (A.D. 1585) by Pizarro, whose remains lie within its magnificent cathedral. Callao, on the adjacent coast, is the port of Lima, and the commercial outlet of Peru. Pasco, Cuzco, and Arequipa are among the most considerable inland cities of Peru; Patta and Mollendo are important seaports. Pasco is famous for its rich silver mines, and is connected by rail with Lima and Callao. Cuzco (20) is a city of early Indian origin, the former capital of the Incas or native sovereigns of Peru. It stands in an Andean valley, at an elevation of more than 11,000 feet above the sea, and is connected by a railway with the coast.

BOLIVIA.

THE REPUBLIC OF BOLIVIA, which derives its name from the great liberator of Spanish South America, Simon Bolivar, is an inland State, bounded on the *north* and *east* by Brazil, on the *south* by the Argentine Republic and Paraguay, and on the *west* by Peru and Chili.

The area of Bolivia is considerably greater than that of Chili, being estimated at 483,000 square miles, or about eight times that of England and Wales.

The present population of Bolivia is estimated at 22 millions, of whom the aboriginal Indians number over a million, the Mestizces or mixed races about half a million, and the Whites also about half a million. The Whites, as is the case along the whole western side of the South American continent, are Spaniards or of Spanish descent.

NATURAL FEATURES.—Some of the highest portions of the Andes are within Bolivia. The border-line between Peru and Bolivia crosses the high tableland of Titicaca, the larger portion of which is within the latter State. On either side of the tableland are ranged some of the highest summits of the mountain system. One of the number—the peak of *Sorata*, which attains an elevation of 24,812 feet—surpasses in height even the lofty cone of Aconcagua, in the Chilian Andes, which was formerly regarded as the culminating summit of the New World.

To the east of the **Bolivian Andes**, vast plains stretch towards the interior of the continent. These are watered by numerous rivers, some of which belong to the basin of the **Amazon**, others to that of the **Paraguay**. **Lake Titicaca** is partly within Bolivia and partly in Peru. The basin of this lake is entirely inland; the **Desaguadero River**, which issues from it, is lost in the salt lake of **Uros**, to the south-east.

of all the State railways, guano deposits, mines, and lands for 66 years, the bondholders undertaking to complete and extend the existing railways.

^{1.} The Revenue is now over, and the Expenditure under, 14 millions sterling a year. The external Forsign Debt (about 514 millions sterling, contracted in England in 1570-73) was cancelled by the cession, in 1580, to the bondholders

CLIMATE and PRODUCTIONS.—The climate and productions of Bolivia resemble those of Peru. Like that country, it abounds naturally both in mineral and vegetable wealth.

The commercial productions of Bolivia include precious metals, bark, and the wool of the alpace and other animals of the llama tribe. The principal agricultural products are make, rice, barley, oats, cotton, cocca, indigo, indig-rubber, cocca, potatoes, and the choicest fruits, with cinchona bark, medicinal plants, &c. Cocca is one of the most important products of the country, while there are over five million cinchona trees, which yield 200,000 lbs. of bark annually. The culture of the coffee plant is extending.

Commerce.-Nearly one-half of the imports, which average 11 millions a year. are believed to come from the United Kingdom, mainly through the Peruvian port of Arica. Two-thirds of the exports, which amount to 13 millions a year, consist of silver. As Bolivia has no sea coast, her products pass through Peruvian and Chilian ports and Buenos Avres.

Government.—The government of the Republic is entrusted to a President and a Congress of two Chambers, elected by universal suffrage. The State reli-gion is the Roman Catholic. There are 500 primary schools and 5 universities.

Towns.—The capital of Bolivia is Sucre or Chuquisaca, but the seat of Government is usually La Paz. SUCRE (17) is situated on the interior plateau, at an elevation of more than 9,000 feet. Potosi (12), to the south-west of the capital, is a more famous city, on account of the rich silver mines with which its name was formerly so long associated. I The town of La Paz (57), which stands only a short distance from Lake Titicaca, is more populous, and commercially more important, than any other place in Bolivia, and the chief transit trade of the country passes through it. **Cochabamba** (20) is an important agricultural centre. **Santa Crus** (10) is the chief town to the east of the Cor-dilleras, and will shortly be united by rail with the River Paraguay.

QUESTIONS ON PERU AND BOLIVIA.

1. On which side of South America is Peru? 2. What three natural divisions does the phy-sical geography of Peru include? 3. What kind of region is the coast plain of

Peru?

What great river has its upper portion

4. What great river has its upper portion within Peur 3. 8. Bay what you know concerning the elimate and mineral and regetable productions of Peur. 8. From what group of islands is guano ob-tained? 7. Name the chief city and port of Peru. 8. Where are the following places:--Ouzoo, Areguips, Pasco, Paits, and Arias? Which of these is famous for its silver mines?

By what circumstance is Cusco historically distinguished?
 Definit to Bolivia on the map, and name its boundaries?
 Point to Bolivia on the map, and name its Bolivia and Peru?
 What great lake is on the borders of Bolivia and Peru?
 What kind of country is to the west of the Bolivia Andes? What to the east?
 Mention some of the commercial produc-tions of Bolivia.
 Foint out the following places on the map:-Sucre, Potes! Cochabamba, and La Per.
 Which of them is the capital of Bolivia?
 Under what form of government are Peru and Bolivia? What religion is followed?

CHILI.

The REPUBLIC OF CHILI includes the comparatively narrow strip of country on the western coast of South America, between the Andes and the Pacific. It is bounded on the north by Peru; on the northeast, by Bolivia; on the east, by the Argentine Republic; and on the west and south, by the Pacific.

Though of such narrow limits in the direction of east and west, the area of the Provinces and Territories included in the Republic is not less than 294,000

^{1.} The silver mines of Potosi alone are esti-mated to have produced silver, amounting in value to 600 millions of pounds sterling, from

CHILI.

square miles, or more than 5 times that of England and Wales. The extreme length is over 2,800 miles, but the breadth, even north of Valdivia, is on an average not more than 100 miles.

NATURAL FEATURES.-The stupendous cordillera which forms its eastern boundary is the great feature of Chili. The Chilian Andes include some of the highest summits of the mountain system -the loftiest being the peak of *Aconcagua*. Numerous other high summits, many of them volcanoes, occur both to the north and south of this peak.

The plain between the Andes and the sea is much broader within Chili than on other parts of the western coast. This plain is not uniformly level, but diversified, for the most part, by hills of moderate altitude, with watered valleys between. Towards the extreme north, however, it passes into a perfectly arid region, called the Desert of Atacama, which is now within Chili. This is a perfectly sterile wilderness, devoid of rain and entirely destitute of verdure.

Rivers.-Chili contains numerous rivers, which uniformly have their courses to the westward, flowing from the Andes into the Pacific Ocean. The longest of them is the Biobio.

Climate.-The climate of Chili is temperate and healthy, becoming gradually cooler towards the south. The northern part of the country is nearly rainless.

TRADE and INDUSTRIES.—Agriculture and mining are the chief industries in Chili, and animals and animal products are a great source of wealth.

The country is barren and sandy in the north, but extremely fertile and productive in the south, where most of the people are engaged in agriculture, producing annually about 21 million bushels of wheat, and 24 million gallons of wine. Live animals, with wool, hides, skins, and other animal products, are important items in the exports, but the chief sources of wealth are the nitrate deposits of the north, the copper and silver of the centre, and the iron and coal of the south. Mining products form five-sixths of the exports, while the agricultural products only amount to about one-ninth of the whole. Nitrates form the bulk of the mining products, while wheat and wine are the principal products of the soil.¹

GOVERNMENT.—Chili is a Republic,² under an elective Presid-The legislative power is vested in a National Congress or ent. Parliament.

Chili has a population of over 3 millions. It includes a larger proportion of the white race (Spanish) than is the case in other countries of South America. The Roman Catholic religion is uniformly followed by the Chilian people. Education is free and at the cost of the State. There is a university at Santiago.

Divisions and Towns.—The Republic is divided into 23 Provinces. The chief towns are Santiago, the capital, and Valparaiso, the chief port.

Chilians. A treaty of peace was signed in 1883. During the civil war of 1891 in Chili, between the President, who evidently aimed at a Dictator-ship, and the Congressionalists or Parliamentary party, several battles were fought, and much blood was shed and property destroyed. The conflict was ended by the capture of Valparaiso after a hotly contested battle at Vina del Mar, and the subsequent occupation of Santiago by the Congressional troops. The ill-starred Presid-ent Balmaceda shot himself in the Argentine Legation at Santiago.

The total imports and exports each amount to about 13 millions starling. About two-fifths of the foreign trade is carried on with Great Britain—the imports thereform and exports therefore ach amount to about 34 millions starling annually—the rest chiefly with Germany, France, the United States, and Peru.
 Chili proclaimed its independence of Spain 1810. The war with Peru and Bolivia closed, in 1819, with the total defeat and Mirafores, and the surrender of Lima and Callao to the

SANTIAGO (200), the capital of Chili, is an inland city, about midway between the Andes and the ocean. The chief seaport is Valparaiso (105), which is the most important centre of commerce on the west coast of South America. The city of Concepcion (24), on the River Biobio, to the south of Valparaiso, is also of considerable commercial importance. On the coast, to the north of Valparaiso, are numerous ports, among which **Coquimbo** and **Iquique** (16) are the most important. In the northern portion of the country are the ports of Antofagasta and Cobija. Tarapaca, at the foot of the Andes, is the chief town of the ceded Peruvian province. The ports of Tacna and Arica and the adjoining districts are also provisionally held by Chili.

THE ARGENTINE REPUBLIC.

ARGENTINA or the ARGENTINE¹ REPUBLIC includes the group of States formerly known as the 'United Provinces of the Rio de la Plata," and now consists of 14 Provinces and 9 Territories. The area of the Provinces is stated to be 515,700 square miles, and that of the various Territories 719,300 square miles, so that the republic has a total area of no less than 1,335,000 square miles, or nearly 20 times that of England and Wales.

Argentina is bounded on the north by Bolivia, on the north-east by Paraguay, on the east by Brazil, Uruguay, and the Atlantic Ocean, and on the west by Chili.

The republic is very thinly peopled, the total number of inhabitants being not more than 41 millions, a very small number for such an immense country, averaging only 3 per square mile. *

The Spanish language prevails throughout Argentina. The Roman Catholic religion is uniformly followed. The primary schools are maintained by the general and provincial governments. There are 2 universities and about 50 normal schools and lyceums.

NATURAL FEATURES.—The greater part of the Argentine Republic is an immense plain. This plain includes, in the south, the region of the Pampas, and, in the north, the larger portion of an extensive tract called the Gran Chaco-a succession of grassy plains, of the highest natural fertility, though tenanted only by wild beasts or by savage Indians.

Rivers.-The rivers of Argentina are of first-rate magnitude. Among them are the Paraguay, the Parana, and the Uruguay, the three great feeders of the extensive estuary entitled the River Plate (Rio de la Plata). The whole region, with the exception of a very small tract in the extreme north, is within the Temperate Zone, and the climate is not generally warmer than that of southern Europe.

PRODUCTIONS.—The vast herds of cattle and horses and the enormous flocks of sheep which are reared on the immense pastures, constitute the wealth of Argentina, and animals and animal products form the chief exports.

Argentine, from the Latin argentum, silver.
 So called from the Rio de la Plata, s.e., the River of Silver.
 A larger proportion of the Argentine people are of white race than is the case in the coun-tries further morth. The whites are chiefly, but by no means exclusively, of Spanish descent

The increase of population within recent years is due mostly to immigration, chiefly from the south of Europe, the Utalians forming 70 per cent, and the Spaniards only 10 per cent, of the new comers. Over a million settlers entered the country between 1882 and 1890.

Agriculture is, however, progressing rapidly, and about 10,000 square miles of land are now under cultivation. The chief crops are wheat and maize, but a large acreage is devoted to alfalfa, oats, flax, vine, sugar-cane, and other cultures. The mineral wealth is great, but almost undeveloped; some gold, silver, and copper are exported.

Trade.—The commerce of the Argentine Republic is very large, and has nearly doubled during the last decade. Present value, about 56 millions sterling.

The foreign trade is mainly with Great Britain, France, Germany, Belgium, and the United States.¹ The chief articles of export are wool, hides and skins, live animals, frozen and salted meat, tallow, maize, wheat, linseed, &c.

Nearly 7,000 miles of **railways** connect the principal cities of the Republic with the capital and chief seaport, BUENOS AYRES, and there are, besides, some 5,000 miles under construction.

GOVERNMENT.—Each of the Argentine Provinces is a distinct republic, the whole constituting together a **Federal Republic**.²

Divisions.—The Argentine Republic is divided into 14 Provinces and 9 Territories. The Provinces may be arranged in three groups:—(1) Littoral, (2) Central, and (3) Andean.

The Littoral Provinces, 4 in number, are Buenos Ayres, Santa Fé, Entre Rios, and Corrientes. The Province of Buenos Ayres is the largest and most important of all the Argentine provinces. This Province, with the city of the same name, which forms the capital of the Republic, contains considerably more than a third of the entire population of the country. The city of **BUENOS AYRES** (561), stands on the south side of the magnificent estuary of the La Plata, and is the most important commercial centre, not only of the Argentine Republic, but also of all South America. The capital of the Province of Buenos Ayres is La Plata, also on the same river, 40 miles south-east of the Federal capital.

The Central Provinces of the Republic are also 4 in number. They are Cordova, San Luis, Santiago del Estero, and Tucuman. These four provinces are named after their chief towns, all of which are united by rail with Buenos Ayres.

The Andean Provinces of *Rioja*, *Catamarca*, San Juan, Mendoza, Salta, and Jujuy (also named after their chief towns) are, with the exception of the Patagonian and the Chaco Territories, the most thinly-peopled portion of the Republic.

The Argentine Territories, 9 in number, are Misiones, Formosa, and Chaco in the north; La Pampa in the centre; and Rio Negro, Neuquen, Chubut, Santa Cruz, and Tierra del Fuego in the south. The Territory of Misiones is in the north-east, between the Parana and the Uruguay, which here approach each other, and are connected by a short railway. Formosa and Chaco are both within the vast El Gran Chaco. La Pampa, as the name shows, is within the Pampas region, between the Province of Buenos Ayres and the Andean Territory of Neuquen. The other Territories are within the extensive and comparatively barren region known as Patagonia, which, until recent years, was inhabited only by a few thousand uncivilized Indians. The Rio Negro Territory is bounded on the north by the Colorado River, and is traversed by the Rio Negro, at the mouth of which is Viedina, the only town. The Territory of Chubut or Chupat is named from the river which flows through it; near the mouth of the Chubut is Rawson, the centre of a prosperous Welsh colony, connected by a railway with Port Madryn, on a fine inlet, the Baia Nueva. The Territory of Santa Cruz includes the southern part of Patagonia, and its chief river and town are also named Santa Cruz.

1. The trade with Great Britain is very large and steadily increasing, the exports from the Republic to Great Britain amounted, in 1890, to over 4 millions sterling, while the imports of Britain produce-principally machinery, hardthesame rear, werevalued at 8% millions sterling. Uruguay.

2. When these Provinces first declared their independence of Spain, in the early part of the present century, they were sixteen in number. But two among them subsequently separated from the federal body and assumed the position of independent States. These are Paraguay and Uruguay.

PARAGUAY.

THE REPUBLIC OF PARAGUAY, the "Mesopotamia of South America," is to the north-east of the Argentine Republic. It is enclosed between the great rivers Parana and Paraguay, and is bounded on the north and east by Brazil.

Paraguay has now an area of only 91,970 square miles, and a population of about \$30,000, besides 60,000 semi-civilized, and 70,000 uncivilized Indians. Its most characteristic article of produce is the yerba mats or Paraguay tea, which is extensively used in South America like tea in the Old World. **Ýer**ba maté, tobacco, hides and skins, oranges, sugar, &c., amounting to about half a million sterling, form the chief exports. About half the imports come from Great Britain. The chief town of Paraguay is **ASUNCION** (35), on the River Paraguay. Only three other towns-Villa Rica, Concepcion, and San Pedro -have over 10,000 inhabitants.

URUGUAY.

THE REPUBLIC OF URUGUAY lies to the north of the La Plata. The River Uruguay forms its western border. On the east it is bounded by the Atlantic Ocean, and on the north by Brazil.

Uruguay includes 72,000 square miles, and has a population of about 700,000. Its capital is MONTE VIDEO (172), which stands on the north bank of the Rio de la Plata, at the entrance of that estuary. Monte Video occupies a position admirably suited for maritime commerce, of which it enjoys a large share. The rearing of cattle and sheep is the leading industry in the republic, and an active trade is carried on, chiefly with Great Britain and France, the principal articles of export being cattle, hides, preserved meat, wool, and tallow. Fray Bentos and Paysandu have important preserved-meat manufactories.

THE FALKLAND ISLANDS.

The British Crown Colony of the FALKLAND ISLANDS is situated in the South Atlantic, about 300 miles east of Magellan Strait.

The Colony consists of two large islands—**East Falkland** and **West Falkland** —and about a hundred smaller islands. The total area is about 7,500 square miles, and the population about 2,000. The staple industry on these treeless but well grassed islands is pastoral—large numbers of sheep, cattle, and horses are reared, and wool, tallow, hides and skins, and sheep form the chief exports from PORT STANLEY, a free port at the head of Port William on the coast of East Falkland, and which is not only the capital, but also the only important settlement in the colony.1

QUESTIONS ON CHILI, ARGENTINA, PARAGUAY, &c.

1. How is Chili bounded on the east, west, and north ? 2. Give some account of the natural features

2 Give some account of the mineral kingdom of Chili. 4 What productions of the mineral kingdom belong to Chili? What articles constitute its commercial produce? 4 Name the capital of Chili, also its chief

A must be capted of online, also that the seaport.
 Where are Conception and Coquimbo?
 Under what form of government is Chili?
 What language is spoken there? What religion is followed?

7. Where is the Argentine Republic? How is it bounded?

B. Where is the tract of country known as the Gran Chaco? What natural features does it which?
9. What three great rivers belong to Argentina?
Into what estuary are their waters discharged?

GLANINA, PARAGUAY, CC.
10. In what does the wealth of the Argentine Republic chiefly consist?
11. What articles constitute the commercial produce of this region?
12. What city forms the capital of the Argen-tine Republic? On what river is it present in-cluded within the Argentine Republic? What two States, now independent, were formerly members of the Argentine Confederation?
14. Name and point out on the map the nine Territories of Argenting. What two great rivers bound it on either side?
16. Where is Paraguay? What two great rivers bound it on either side?
16. Name the capitals of Paraguay and Urguay respectively.

16. Name uncentrate is a subject of a tural pro-respectively. 17. What characteristic article of natural pro-duce dees Paraguay furnish? 18. To whom do the Faikland Islands belong? What town do they contain ?

1. The Falkland Islands were discovered by Davis in 1592. They were taken possession of by the British Government, as a station for the protection of the whale fishery, in 1833.

OCEANIA.

OCEANIA, the fifth grand division of the land surface of the globe, embraces the vast "world of islands" in the Pacific Ocean, and also includes the great island-continent of Australia¹ and the smaller islands between the Pacific and the Indian Oceans.

Oceania thus includes the two great divisions of Australasia and Polynesia. and some geographers include in addition the Malaysian or East Indian Archipelago.

AUSTRALASIA.

AUSTRALASIA, that is, Austral or Southern Asia, is the general name given to the larger British Colonies and Possessions in Oceania. Australasia thus includes the great island-continent of Australia, the islands of Tasmania and New Zealand, together with the Fiji Islands and British New Guinea.

Australia, which is, strictly speaking, an island, but an island of such an immense size that it may well be regarded as a continent, a is politically divided into five distinct colonies, at present independent of each other.

The Five Colonies of Australia are New South Wales (the Mother-Colony of Australia), Victoria, Queensland, South Australia, and Western Australia; and their absolute and relative position may be readily grasped by regarding the continent as divided into three parts—Western, Central, and Eastern—by the 129th meridian east, and by another line formed by the 138th meridian in the north and the 141st in the south. The Western part consists entirely of Western Australia, the Central section comprises South Australia and its Northern Territory, while the Eastern division includes the three colonies of Queensland in the north, New South Wales in the middle, and Victoria in the south.

The Colony of Tasmania is an island to the south of Victoria and separated from it by Bass Strait.

The Colony of New Zealand consists of two large islands, and a number of smaller islands in the South Pacific Ocean, about 1,200 miles to the south-east of Australia.

The Fiji Islands, a British Crown Colony, are also situated in the Pacific. about 1,000 miles north of New Zealand.

British New Guinea includes the southern and south-eastern part of the island of New Guinea, which lies off the north-eastern coast of Australia, at a distance of about 60 miles from it.

^{1.} The greater part of South America, and a in the world. Greenland is the next in size, and considerable portion of Africa, are within the New Guinea, the third largest island, is only one-Southern Hemisphere, but Australia is the only tent the size of Australia. As a continent, Australia is the smallest of the six great land-masses on the surface of the globac, it is is the smallest of the six great land-masses on the surface of the globac six great land-masses on the surface of the globac six great land-masses on the surface of the globac six great land-masses on the surface of the globac six great land-masses on the surface of the globac six great land-masses on the surface of the globac six great land-masses on the surface of the globac six great land-masses on the surface of the globac six great land-masses on the surface of the globac six great land-masses on the surface of the globac six great land-masses on the surface of the globac six great land-masses on the surface of the globac six great land-masses on the surface of the globac six great land-masses on the surface of the globac six great land-masses on the surface of the globac six great land-masses on the surface of the globac six great land-masses on the surface of the globac six great land-masses on the surface of the globac six great land-masses on the surface of the globac six great land-masses on the surface six great land-m

EXTENT.-Some idea of the immense extent of Australasia may be gained by comparing the areas of the various colonies with that of Great Britain and other countries. Australia alone has an area of nearly 3,000,000 square miles, or 33 times that of Great Britain, while New Zealand, Tasmania, Fiji, and British New Guinea have together an area of 226,000 square miles, or nearly 4 times that of England and Wales.

Australasia has thus a total area of no less than 3,161,000 square miles, or 26 times the size of Great Britain and Ireland, 151 times the size of France, and rather larger than that of the United States of North America, and only about one-sixth smaller than that of all the countries of Europe taken together.

The proportion in size of the Australian colonies to each other and to the whole continent may be readily seen by the following comparison :- If a contineat were divided into 100 equal parts, Victoria would comprise 3 such parts; New South Wales, 10; Queensland, 23; South Australia, 30; and Western Australia, 34.1

DISCOVERY.—The "Great South Land" was probably first seen by a French navigator in 1503, but it was not practically made known to the world until 1770, when the famous Captain Cook explored the whole eastern coast, from Cape Howe to Cape York, and took formal possession of the country, to which he gave the name of New South Wales, from a real or fancied resemblance to the southern part of the Principality of Wales.

Settlement.-The first settlement in Australia was formed in 1788 at Sydney Cove, the neighbourhood of Botany Bay, which had been, on Cook's recommendation, chosen as the site of the new settlement, being found utterly unsuitable.

Exploration.-Since the discovery and occupation of Australia, a succession of dauntless explorers have crossed and recrossed the continent, in order to ascertain its character and capabilities for settlement.

GOVERNMENT.—All the Australasian colonies, except Fiji and British New Guinea, which are Crown Colonies, possesses responsible government.

The form of government is similar to that of the United Kingdom. At the head of the executive in each colony is a Governor, representing the Queen, and appointed by the Crown. The legislative power is vested in a Parliament of two Houses-the Legislative Council, nominated or elected, corresponding to the British House of Lords, and the Legislative Assembly, elected by the people, exercising similar powers to the British House of Commons.²

sentatives of all the Australasian Colonies met at Melbourne, and resolved to take steps towards the holding of a "National Australasian Con-vention," to consider and report upon a scheme of Federal Government. At the National Australasian Convention, which held its sittings in Sydney, in 1969, the Constitution drafted for the proposed "Common-wealth of Australia" was submitted to the dele-gates ropresenting the whole of the Australasian Colonies.

^{1.} The Australian Hand-Book(Gordon & Gotch). 2. The first step towards the Federation of the Australasian Colonies was taken in 1836, when a Federal Council, at which representatives from Victoria, Queensland, Tasmania, Western Aus-tralia, and Fill, were present, met at Hobart for the first time. The Council met subse-quently in 1888 and 1888. In 1888, South Aus-fouth Was and New Zoakond were not re-presented. In 1890, a Conference of Repre-

AUSTRALIA.

AUSTRALIA, the "Southern Land," is, strictly speaking, an island, but an island of such an immense size that it may well be regarded as a continent.

Boundaries.—Australia is bounded by the ocean on every side—by the Pacific on the east, the Indian Ocean on the west, and the Southern Ocean on the south, while Torres Strait, the Arafura Sea, and the Timor Sea, separate it from the Melanesian and East Indian Archipelagoes on the north, and Bass Strait from the island of Tasmania on the south-east.

Extent.—The greatest length, from Steep Point on the west to Cape Byron on the east, is about 2,400 miles. The greatest breadth, from Wilson Promontory on the south to Cape York on the north, is nearly 2,000 miles. The total area of Australia is nearly 3,000,000 square miles.⁺

COASTS.—Australia is much more solid and unbroken in shape or external contour than Europe—more so, indeed, than any of the other continents, except Africa and South America. The *total length* of coast-line is estimated at 10,000 miles—an average of 1 mile of coast to every 300 square miles of area.

1. Inlets.—The great bight known as the Gulf of Carpentaria, on the north, and the corresponding incurve of the Great Australian Bight, on the south, are by far the most extensive. Of the smaller inlets, the most noteworthy are Port Phillip, Encounter Bay, the Gulf of St. Vincent, Spencer Gulf, and King George Sound, on the south coast; Géographe Bay, Shark Bay, Exmouth Gulf, and King Sound, on the west coast; Cambridge Gulf, Van Diemen Gulf, and Arnhem Bay, on the north coast; and Princess Charlotte Bay, Halifax Bay, Broad Sound, Hervey Bay, Moreton Bay, Broken Bay, Port Jackson, and Botany Bay, on the east coast.

2. Straits.—The two principal straits are—*Torres Strait*, in the north, and *Bass Strait*, in the south. Torres Strait divides Australia from New Guinea. Bass Strait intervenes between the Australian mainland and the neighbouring island of Tasmania.

3. Capes.—The principal capes are Cape York, the most northerly point; Cape Byron, the most easterly; Wilson Promontory, the most southerly; and Steep Point, the most westerly point.

4. Islands.-With the single exception of *Tasmania*, there are no large islands off the coasts of Australia. The principal are *Kanggroo Island*, off the coast of South Australia; *Stradbroke, Moreton, Fraser or Great Sandy*, and *Hinchinbrook Islands*, off the east coast of Queensland; *Wellesley Islands* and *Groote Eylandt* (Great Island), in the Gulf of Carpentaria; *Melville* and *Bathurst Islands*, off the coast of the Northern Territory; and *Dirk Hartog Island*, at the entrance to Sharks Bay, off the coast of Western Australia.

or 9% times the size of Great Britain and Ireland. Queensland, with an area of 663,524 square miles, is 5% times as large as the British Isles, while South Australia, with an area of over 903,425 square miles, is nearly 6 times the size of the mother country, or 18 times as large as England and Wales alone. The five Colonies together are very nearly equal in area to the United States, exclusive of Alaska.

^{1.} The actual area of Australia is computed at 2,944,623 square miles, or 20 times that of Great Irritain and Ireland. The largest of its five divisions, Western Australia, has an area of over 1,000,000 square miles, or more than 8 times the size of the United Kingdom; the smallest colony, Victoria, with an area of 57,884 square miles, is nearly as large as Great Britain. New South Waise comprises an area of 300,175 square miles,

NATURAL FEATURES.—"Australia is an immense plateau, with a narrow tract of land sometimes intervening between the edge of this elevated area and the sea. The *east* side is the highest, averaging about 2,000 feet above the ocean. The *west* side is not more than 1,000 feet above the same. The *north* is a little higher. The *south* side is either level with the ocean, or abuts in cliffs upon the sea, ranging from 300 to 600 feet in height."¹

"The general character of all the seaward side of the tableland is precipitous, but on the south-east angle of the continent the tabular form disappears, and there is a true cluster of mountains—the Australian Alps—whose highest elevation is a little over 7,000 feet. This group is near the sea (Bass Strait), and to the southward there is another group of almost equally high mountains which forms the island of Tasmania."

MOUNTAINS.—In Australia, as in Southern Africa, the higher grounds run from south to north, at no great distance from the eastern coast. These elevations on the eastern side of Australia form a continuous, though most irregular, cordillera or chain of heights, extending from Cape Howe to Cape York, and known by the general name of the **Great Dividing Range**.

Various names are applied to the different portions of this long range. The southern portion bears the name of the Australian Alps; further north, the range forms the well-known Blue Mountains, and, still further north, it is known as the Liverpool Range, &c. The Australian Alps are the loftiest part of the chain, and contain the highest of all the Australian Mountains—Mount Townsend, 7,256 feet in height. Mount Kosciusko, in the same range, is the next highest in elevation.

In Victoria, the high lands to the west of the Great Dividing Range culminate in two distinct ranges running north and south, and known as the **Grampians** and the **Pyrenees**.

In South Australia, the principal range runs along the eastern side of the Gulf of St. Vincent and Spencer Gulf. It is known in the south as the **Mount Lofty Range**, and in the north as the **Flinders Range**.

The western coasts are also backed by high grounds of moderate elevation, the principal portion of which, known as the **Darling Range**, runs parallel to the coast at a distance of from 10 to 25 miles.

RIVERS.—Although a large number of rivers are met with on the coast of Australia, there is but one river—the **Murray**—which at all approaches the larger streams of other continents.

The chief characteristic of the rivers of Australia is their liability to sudden and violent floods, and too many of them are, unfortunately, mere surface torrents, supplied by the rains, which are, over the greater part of the interior, both scanty and irregular. During seasons of drought, they are speedily dried up under the intense heat of an Australian sun, or converted into a chain of ponds. With the recurrence of the rainy season, vast floods of water are poured through their beds, and huge trunks of trees, masses of rock, and other *debris*, carried down by the stream, bear witness to the violence of the torrent. The Murray and its chief tributaries are perennial streams, but their volume of water undergoes great variation according to the season of drought or rain.

^{1.} Rev. J. Tenison-Woods. 2. The mountains of Tasmania, which are divided into two sections by the valleys of the Tamar and the Derwent, may be resarded as

1. The Australian Section of the Pacific River System comprises several large and permanently-flowing rivers. Of the coast streams of Queensland, the principal are the Burdekin, the Fitzroy, the Burnet, and the Brisbane, all of which are navigable for steamers of considerable tonnage for some distance inland. In New South Wales, the coast plain is watered by many noble streams, the largest of which are the Clarence, McLeay, Manning, Hunter, Hawkesbury, and Shoalhaven. In Victoria, the Snowy River, the Mitchell, and other smaller streams fall into the Pacific; the other rivers of the colony belong to the basin of the Indian Ocean.

2. The Australian Section of the River System of the Indian Ocean includes the Murray, which enters Encounter Bay through Lake Alexandrina; the Swan, Murchison, Gascoyne, Ashburton, De Grey, Fitzroy, and other rivers of Western Australia; the Victoria and Daly, in the Northern Territory; and the Roper, Flinders, Mitchell, and other streams which fall into the Gulf of Carpentaria.

The **MURRAY**, which drains a large portion of Queensland, the whole of the interior of New South Wales, the northern half of Victoria, and a part of South Australia, rises on the western slopes of the *Australian Alps*, about 15 miles south of *Mount Kosciusko*, and becomes navigable at Albury, about 150 miles from its source. Throughout its upper and middle course, the Murray forms the boundary between the colonies of Victoria and New South Wales; its lower course, below its junction with the Darling, is within South Australia. Its two great tributaries—the **Murrumbidgee** and the **Darling**—with their subsidiary creeks, drain the whole of New South Wales and a part of Queensland west of the Great Dividing Range. The length of the Murray is 1,300 miles, the average width of the main stream is about 240 feet, and its depth about 16 feet, but it undergoes great variation according to the season of drought or rain.

Of the numerous streams that traverse the more settled portion of Western Australia, the Swan alone is navigable to any extent. The Murchison, Gascoyne, Ashburton, De Grey, Fitzroy, and other rivers drain the northern half of Western Australia. In the Northern Territory of South Australia, the Victoria, Roper, and other rivers are navigable for considerable distances inland. The Gregory, Flinders, Norman, and Mitchell are the largest of the many streams that converge into the south-eastern portion of the Gulf of Carpentaria.

3. The largest "continental" rivers of Australia are the **Diamentina** and **Cooper's Greek** or the Barcoo River. Both these streams enter South Australia from the south-west of Queensland, but while Cooper's Creek enters Lake Eyre, the Diamentina dries up and disappears in the stony desert to the north of the Delta of Cooper's Creek.

Lakes.—Lake Alexandrina, through which the Murray passes immediately above its mouth, is the largest fresh-water lake in Australia. It is a shallow expanse of water, difficult to navigate. Most of the other lakes that are marked on the maps of Australia are only salt marshes, or mere surface ponds, with dry beds during the larger portion of the year. Of these, the most extensive are Lakes Eyre, Torrens, and Gairdner, to the north of Spencer Gulf, and Lake Amadeus, in the interior, 270 miles north-west of Lake Eyre.

CLIMATE.—Generally speaking, the climate of Australia may be said to be uniformly warm and intensely dry, but exceptionally healthy, and well suited to Europeans.

So vast a continent necessarily exhibits great differences in climate, which, in fact, ranges from the tropical heat of the north to the cooler and more enjoyable climate of the south. The most densely-peopled districts of Victoria, New South Wales, South Australia, and Western Australia, have a climate resembling, in the main, that of the countries of Southern Europe—genial and delicious in autumn, winter, and spring, and disagreeable only in summer, during the prevalence of the hot winds which now and then blow from the interior, fortunately only for very brief periods.

Bainfall.—All the Australian colonies suffer more or less from periodical droughts, but the total rainfall is, on the whole, greater than in England. The rains fall with great violence at particular seasons, more especially during the winter of the Southern Hemisphere, that is, from May to August. During nine months of the year there is often little or no rain, and the plains in the far interior are sometimes without rain for two or three years consecutively.

NATURAL PRODUCTIONS.—The mineral wealth of Australia equals that of any of the other continents; its animal and vegetable productions differ in many respects from those of the rest of the globe.

1. **PLANTS.**—Australian vegetation is of a strange and peculiar character, and is not less noticeable for the large number of distinct species, than for their dissimilarity to those of other countries.

The characteristic trees of Australia are the **eucalypt**l or gum trees, and the acacies or wattles. There are altogether about 150 different kinds of gum trees, most of them found in Australia alone, and many of them of great value for their timber. Several of the acacies are also magnificent woods, and the bark of the black wattle is valuable for tanning. Ferns are numerous, particularly in the mountain gullies—one variety has fronds six feet in length. The Australian "bush" is generally an open forest country, easily traversed, and with large areas of good pasture for sheep and cattle. But the desolate "scrub" country is the dread of the explorer, while the spinifer-grass regions are most difficult and often impossible to penetrate.

All the grains, fruits, and vegetables, whether European or tropical, planted in the Australian soil, yield abundant crops, wherever there are sufficient moisture and suitable temperature.

Although the Australian Colonies, compared with European countries, have barely emerged from the pastoral stage, the agricultural produce is considerable, and now amounts in value to about three-fourths of the animal products.

Wheat, maize, oats, and barley are largely grown, the vine is extensively cultivated, and the sugar-cane and tobacco are grown in many of the warmer districts in the Eastern Colonies. All kinds of fruit are grown in each of the colonies.

2. ANIMALS.—The native animals of Australia are even more peculiar and anomalous than the plants.

The Marsupialia are the characteristic mammals of Australia. The most remarkable marsupials are the **kangaroos**, the largest of which are about 5 feet high and weigh some 200 lbs. The smaller wallables, hare kangaroos, and rat kangaroos, are much more numerous. The Australian opossums are marsupial animals of arboreal and nocturnal habits, but quite distinct from the true opossums of America. The koala or native bear is a kind of sloth, not much larger than the opossum, and of similar habits. The thick-limbed and clumsy wombat, also a marsupial, lives on roots and burrows underground. The bandicoot is a small rat-like kangaroo. But the most remarkable, perhaps, of all the animals found in Australia are the duck-billed platypus (Ornithorhyncus paradoxicus) or water mole, which is a mammal, but has a bill like a duck, and lays eggs ; and the echidua or ant-eating porcupine, which some

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what resembles the English hedgehog. The elegant native cat, a carnivorous marsupial, is fierce and intractable, but the **dingo** or native dog is much more formidable. The ferocious and untameable **pouched hyena**, and the **native** devil, now only found in Tasmania, were formerly also found in Australia.

The abundance and variety of bird life in Australia are remarkable, and of over 600 distinct species, less than one-twentieth are found elsewhere. Parrots, cockatoos, and paroquets are numerous; eagles, falcons, hawks, and owls abound; the lyre-bird, the bower-bird, with numerous species of pigeons and doves, are all famed for the beauty of their plumage; while the laughing jackass, or great kingfisher, and the mocking bird, arrest the attention of the traveller by their extraordinary cries. Among the larger birds are the black swan, the brush turkeys or mound makers, the native companion, a water bird somewhat like a gigantic crane in appearance, and the emu, a kind of ostrich, the largest of all Australian birds.

The reptiles of Australia include numerous varieties of snakes and lizards. Several species of snakes, particularly the death-adder, the black snake and the tiger snake, are venomous, and some of the lizards, which are very common, attain a large size. Several species of alligators infest the rivers of Queensland and Northern Australia.

There are over a hundred different species of edible sea-fish, of which the schnapper, which sometimes attains the weight of 30 lbs., is the most valuable and abundant.

In the insect world, Australia occupies a foremost position, whether as regards number, peculiarity, or activity, the latter quality being unpleasantly conspicuous in the mosquito.

Introduced Animals.—All the domestic animals of Europe have been introduced into Australia, and immense flocks of sheep and countless herds of cattle, besides a very large number of horses, are now reared on the vast pastures which, not so long ago, only 'carried' kangaroos and wallables. Camels have also been successfully introduced into South Australia.

Noxious Animals.—The dingo or native dog is not the only noxious animal; kangaroos. wallabies, and rabbits, which consume the pasturage, are even greater pests. The rabbits are the greatest pests in many parts of Australia. and over a million sterling has been spent in their destruction. Large sums have also been paid for the destruction of kangaroos, wallabies, kangaroo rats, hares, and wild pigs.

3. MINERALS.-Australia abounds in mineral wealth, and its marvellous progress and prosperity are largely due to the enormously rich gold mines of Victoria, Queensland, and New South Wales, the productive copper mines of South Australia, the valuable coalifelds and rich silver mines of New South Wales, the famous tin mines of Tasmania, and to extensive deposits of other useful and valuable metals and minerals.

Gold may be said to be the "creator" of Australia, for the discovery of fabulously rich goldfields attracted a large and energetic population, and advanced the progress of the country hundred of years at a bound.¹ The richest gold fields are those of Victoria, but the gold mines of New South Wales and

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Queensland have produced a vast amount of the precious metal, which is also found in South Australia, Tasmania, and Western Australia.1

Metals other than gold are also found. The silver mines of the Barrier Ranges and Broken Hill districts of New South Wales are among the richest in the world. Lead is found in all the colonies, but is only worked when combined with silver in paying proportions. Copper also exists in all the colonies, and has been mined extensively in South Australia, New South Wales, and Queensland. The richest deposits of the are in Tasmania—Mount Bischoff in the north-west of the island is a mass of tin ore, yielding 80 per cent. of the pure metal. But nearly twice as much tin is produced in New South Wales, and considerably more in Queensland than in Tasmania. There are large deposits of excellent iron ore in almost all the colonies, but none of them are worked, except in New South Wales.

Mineral fuels are abundantly distributed throughout Australia, and the coalfields of New South Wales are among the most extensive in the world. Coal is also found in Queensland, Tasmania, and Victoria.³

INHABITANTS.—The people of Australia are mainly settlers from the British Isles, or their descendants, and now number over 3 millions. There are also about 50,000 Chinese, 10,000 Polynesians, 1,000 Malays, and perhaps 100,000 Aborigines.

The Australian Aborigines are among the most degraded members of the human race. A few roots and berries, with shell-fish, insects, grubs, and other repulsive objects, form the food resources of the Australian savage, who will eat almost anything-lizards, snakes, and frogs being especially esteemed, while most of the wilder tribes are also cannibals, not from necessity, but from choice. Some of them are occasionally employed as shepherds by the colonists, but they dislike continuous work, and soon return to the bush. There are still a few hundreds of them in Victoria, and they are rather more numerous in New South Wales, South Australia, and Western Australia, but most of them are confined to the thinly settled parts of Queensland, and even there, as elsewhere, they are gradually dying out, although it will probably be a long time before they are entirely extinct. In Tasmania, the last of the aboriginal race died in 1876. The **Chinese**, who number about 50,000, are most numerous on the gold-fields, principally in Northern Queensland, where the **Folymesians** and **Malays** are also mostly found, having been introduced as labourers on the sugar or cotton plantations.

There is a considerable German element in Australia, especially in South Australia and Queensland, and there are several thousand Scandinavian, American, and French settlers in the various colonies.

With these insignificant exceptions, the Australian people are British or of British origin. The native-born Australians now largely outnumber the settlers from the United Kingdom and all other countries, and the increase of the Australian-born section of the population is much greater than the increase due to immigration, except in Queensland and, perhaps, in Western Australia.

^{1.} Large 'nuggeta,' or masses of pure gold, have at various times been uncerthed in Victoria and New South Wales. The 'Welcome Stranger,' found in 1969 in Victoria, weighed 190 lbs.; the 'Welcome' nugget, found in 1868, weighed 194 lbs. 9 oz 16 diwts, and sold for £10,500. In New South Wales, amass of gold weighing 106 lbs. was found on the Turon in 1851. 2. The focal value of the tween 1869 and 1890, produced in Australa, between 1860 and 1890.

³⁰⁰ millions represent the value of gold, and of this amount considerably more than two-thirds were contributed by Victoria. About 30 million pounds worth of copper, and 30 million pounds worth of thin, and not much less than 25 million pounds worth of coal, with several million pounds' worth of soler, and silver lead ore, have been won in the Australian colonies during the last 49 sers, in addition to the gold, an average yearly production of over 11 millions sterling.

EXAMINATION QUESTIONS.

1. What continent and islands does Oceania embrace? What is the general name given to the British Colonies and other possessions in Oceania?

Oceania? 2. Name the five colonies of Australia. Where are Tasmania, New Zealand, and Flji? 3. Compare Australasia and Great Britain as regards extent. When was Australia first dis-covered? Where was the first settlement made? What steps have been taken towards the federa-tion of the Australasian Colonies? 4. In what particular, as to situation, is Aus-tralia distinguished from each of the other continents?

continents

5. By what oceans is Australia bounded on the

By what oceans is Australia bounded on the east, west, and south ?
 Bates the area of Australia.
 Name the principal inlets, straits, and capes of Australia.
 Which portion of the coasts of Australia exhibits the most continuous chain of high grounds?
 How are the different parts of this cordillera

V QUESTIONS.
 rivers of Australia, and trace out its course on the map. In what mountains does it rise?
 13. Name some of the rivers on the eastern, wetwork and nother vector coarts of Australia.
 Australian rivers?
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 Australian of the Australian continent.
 To dive some particulars concerning the native vegetation of the Australian continent.
 To dive some part of the world are members of this order found?
 Australian esome of the quadrupeds, among the

7. Name the principal inlets, straits, and capes 6. Which portion of the coasts of Australia 9. How are the different parts of the straight do they reach? 10. Point on the map to the Australian Alps. 11. In which they reach? 12. Name the most considerable among the 12. Name the most considerable among the straight do they present population of the straight do they reach? 13. Name the most considerable among the straight do they present population of the straight do they reach? 14. Name the most considerable among the straight do they present population of the straight do they reach? 15. Name the most considerable among the straight do they present population of the straight do they reach? 16. Point on the map to the Australian Alps. 17. Name the most considerable among the straight do the present population of the straight do the present population of the straight do they reach? 16. Point on the map to the Australian Chapter found? 17. Name the most considerable among the straight do the present population of the straight do the straight do the present population of the straight do the straight do the present population of the straight do the straight

NEW SOUTH WALES.

NEW SOUTH WALES, the "mother colony" of Australia, extends along the eastern coast of the continent from Point Danger on the north to Cape Howe on the south, a distance of 700 miles, and stretches inland for a distance of from 500 to 850 miles.¹

New South Wales is bounded on the north by Queensland, on the west by south Australia, on the south by Victoria, and on the east by the Pacific Ocean. It has an area of 309,175 square miles, or 21 times that of Great Britain and Ireland, and, as regards population, it has almost outstripped Victoria, although the number of inhabitants—nearly 11 millions—is very small compared to the extent of the country they occupy, there being on an average scarcely 4 persons to the square mile, or less than 125th part of the density in England and Wales.

The coast-line of New South Wales is broken up by numerous bays and inlets, many of which afford ample shelter and safe anchorage, and some of them, such as Port Jackson, Broken Bay, and Port Stephens, are among the finest natural harbours in the world.

NATURAL FEATURES.—Physically, the colony presents considerable diversity. A comparatively narrow coast plain extends inland to the coast ranges, that generally form the seaward edge of an elevated tableland (upon which lie the irregular ranges of the Great Dividing Chain), and which slopes westward into the great plains of the interior.

1. Mountains.-- A series of mountain chains, known as the Great Dividing Range, runs parallel to the coast at a varying distance of from 30 to 100 miles. East of it are smaller mountain chains-the Coast Ranges. There are also several hill ranges and isolated hills in the interior.³

_1. N	orfolk .	sian	d, Pf	tcairn	Island	i, and	Lora
		are	also	attach	ed to	New	South
Wales.							
0 101		*			L D	dina	Dango

1. Norfolk Island, Pitcairn Island, and Lord Howe Island are also attached to New South 2. The portion of the Great Dividing Range within New South Wales consists of seven main 1. Norfolk Island, Pitcairn Island, and Lord Bitse Mountains and the Muniong Range to New South Wales consists of seven main 1. Norfolk Island, Pitcairn Island, and Lord Bitse Mountains and the Muniong Range Toursend, 7,266 feet, and Mount Kosciusko, 7,171 feet.

2. Rivers.—The Great Dividing Range forms the main watershed of the colony, and contains the sources of almost all the rivers. The Hawkesbury and other rivers drain the comparatively short eastern slope into the Pacific; the Darling, the Lachlan, the Murrumbidgee, and other streams drain the long western slope into the Murray, which itself flows along the southern frontier of the colony for over a thousand miles.

The rivers of the eastern slope include the **Hawkesbury** or Nepean, 330 miles in length; the **Hunter** (300 m.); the **Shoahaven** (260 m.); the **Clarence** (240 m.); the **Macleay** (190 m.); the **Richmond** (120 m.); and the **Manning** (100 m.).

The rivers of the western slope, with the exception of a few 'continental' creeks in the extreme north-west, belong to the basin of the MURRAY. The most westerly of these is the **Darling**, which joins the Murray at Wentworth, after a course of over 1,000 miles. The Lachlan (700 m.) is the chief tributary of the Murrumbidgee—the second great affluent of the Murray.

3. Lakes.—The lakes of New South Wales are few in number and small in size. The largest mountain lakes are Lake George and Lake Bathurst. The largest coastal lakes are Lake Macquarie, Lake Illawarra, and Brisbane Water.

CLIMATE.—The climate of New South Wales is, on the whole, warm and dry, and everywhere extremely healthy.

The rainfall is ample and sometimes excessive on the coast plain, moderate on the high lands, and scanty on the great western plains. It averages from 50 inches at Sydney to 20 inches on the uplands and less on the plains.

PRODUCTIONS.—The *indigenous trees, shrubs,* and *plants*¹ are of less value than the **cultivated cereals, fruits,** and **vegetables;** the *native animals* are absolutely valueless compared with the **domestic animals** now reared in millions on the rich pastures; while the **mineral resources** of the colony are practically inexhaustible.

No country has been favoured by nature with a greater variety and abundance of trees, yielding strong, beautiful, and durable timbers, and the **mineral wealth** of the colony is very large. Much gold has been, and still is, obtained; the *silver* mines are very rich, while the *coalfields* are the most extensive and accessible in the Southern Hemisphere, and must ultimately make New South Wales the wealthiest and most important of all the Australian colonies.

INDUSTRIES.—More than one-fourth of the adult male population of New South Wales are engaged in **agriculture**, one-fourteenth in **pastoral pursuits**, one-eighth in **manufactures**, one-thirteenth in mining, and one-twelfth in trade and commerce; the rest are chieffy engaged in professional pursuits, in transport by land and sea, or as skilled or unskilled labourers in building or construction.

1. The pastoral industry, the first in order of time, is still the first in order of value: The staple product of the colony is **wool**, the annual clip amounting to about 230 million lbs. There are now over 56 million sheep in the colony.

2. Agriculture.—Only about one-half per cent. of the area of the colony is under cultivation. The principal crops grown at present are wheat, mairs, oats, barley, potatoes, sugar-cane, tobacco, grapes, oranges, and other fruits.

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^{1.} Except, of course, the native grasses and natural pasturage for so many millions of shrubs, such as the salt bush, which form the sheep.

3. Mining.-Mining, especially for coal, silver, 1 and gold. is an important industry, and about one-ninth of the population is dependent upon the yield of the mines.

4. Manufactures of various kinds support about one-sixth of the whole population of the colony. The most important are wool-washing establishments, metal-works, printing-works, &c.

5. Commerce.-The trade of New South Wales has increased from less than half a million in 1825, and 20 millions in 1865, to over 441 millions in 1890. The foreign trade of this colony is larger than that of any of the other colonies of Australasia, both in absolute amount and in proportion to the population. It is, in fact, exceeded in value by that of no other British colony or dependency, India and Canada alone excepted. About 88 per cent. of the total trade is carried on with Great Britain and the other Australasian Colonies and the British Possessions in other parts of the world-the rest is chiefly with the United States, Belgium, France, Germany, and China (Hong-Kong).³

Imports.-The imports consist principally of articles of food and drink, clothing, textile fabrics, iron and metal goods, and other manufactured articles, sugar, tea, &c. Annual value, 23 millions sterling.

Exports .- The main articles of export are wool, gold (in coin), coal, live stock, tin, silver, copper, skins, and tallow. Annual value, 22 millions sterling.

Ports.-The chief ports are Sydney, Newcastle, Wollongong, and Eden The bulk of the foreign trade of the colony passes through SYDNEY, which ranks next to Melbourne among Australian ports.

Communications.—Internal communication is facilitated by a network of over 24,000 miles of roads and over 3,000 miles of railways, together with several thousand miles of navigable waterways.

GOVERNMENT .- The government of New South Wales is vested in a Governor, who represents the Queen, and a Parliament of two Houses—the Legislative Council and the Legislative Assembly.

The Revenue, in 1890, amounted to nearly 91 millions sterling, and the Expenditure to a little over 91 millions, while the Public Debt was nearly 481 millions, or £43 per head of the population.

Education .- Education is under State control, and is compulsory, and free for poor children. The University of Sydney was founded in 1858.

DIVISIONS and TOWNS.-The colony is divided into 13 Pastoral Districts, and also into 141 Counties. The chief towns are Sydney and Newcastle, on the coast; Bathurst, on the tableland ; and Broken Hill, Bourke, and Albury, in the interior.

SYDNEY (400), the capital of New South Wales and the oldest city in all Australia, is most picturesquely situated on the southern shore of Port Jackson -a magnificent natural harbour, absolutely unrivalled for convenience of entrance, depth of water, and facilities for shipping. The foreign commerce of Sydney is very extensive, and is surpassed among Australasian ports only by that of Melbourne, while, in the value of its trade, it is exceeded only by London Livernool and Hull among Mustralasian ports (10 only by London, Liverpool, and Hull among British ports. **Farramatta** (12), famous for its orangeries and fruit gardens, is about 14 miles west of Sydney.

of the silver region, are connected by rail with Port Pirle and Adelaids. 2. Nearly nine-tenths of the foreign trade of the colony is carried on with Great Britain and the British Possessions, and the direct trade with Great Britain alone is even larger than the intercolonial trade.

^{1.} Silver-mining has, since the discovery of the rich silver fields of the Barrier Ranges and the Broken Hull districts in 1883, become of great im-portance, and the annual export of silver and silver-lead ore amounts to over 2 millions stor-ling. BROKEN HILL and SILVERTON, the centres

The chief towns on the coast, besides Sydney, are Newcastle (53), the great port of the northern coalfields, Wollongong, the port of the southern coal-field, Ballina, at the mouth of the Richmond River, and Eden, on Twofold Bay. Newcastle, at the mouth of the Hunter River, is the second largest town in the colony, and is important as the chief emporium of the coal trade. The harbour is protected by a breakwater.1

The chief towns on the tableland are Bathurst, on the Macquarie River, Tamworth, Mudgee, and Goulburn. Bathurst, the centre of the principal wheat-growing district in the colony, is, with the exception of Broken Hill, the largest town in the colony to the west of the Blue Mountains.

The largest towns on the plains are Albury (3), on the Murray, Wagga wagga and Hay, on the Murrambidgee, Deniliquin, in the Riverine District of the Murray, Bourke and Wentworth, on the Darling, and Broken Hill (25) and Silverton, in the silver-mining region to the west of the Darling. Albury, famous for its wines and as the frontier town where the railway from Sydney is connected with the main line from Melbourne, is situated on the Murray, at the head of navigation, about 150 miles from its source, and about 1,000 miles from the outlet of this great river in Lake Alexandrina. Between the Darling and the South Australian border lies the rich silver-mining district of the Barrier Range. Here Broken Hill, 800 miles west of Sydney, and 300 miles north-east of Adelaide, and Silverton, 17 miles north-west of Broken Hill, are the chief centres.

QUESTIONS ON NEW SOUTH WALES.

What is the geographical position of New South Wales? What colonies bound it on the north, west, and south? inlets on the coast of New South Wales.
 Describe briefly the mountains, and name the chief rivers of New South Wales.
 Foint on the map to the largest mountain a Describe the climits, and mention some of the principal productions of the colony.

6. What are the chief industries? What is the staple product? Name the chief ports. 7. What is the present form of government? How is the collary divided? 8. Name the capital of New South Wales. In what year was it founded? On what inlet does it stand? the capital the collary

it stand?
In what part of the colony are Newcastle and Bathurst situated?
Name any other important towns on the coast or in the interior.

VICTORIA.

The "Gold Colony" of VICTORIA, called by the early explorers Australia Felix, from its beauty and fertility, is the smallest in area, but the foremost in wealth and enterprise, of the Australian Colonies. It forms the south-eastern portion of the continent. of which it occupies one thirty-fourth part.

Victoria is separated from New South Wales (of which, from 1835 to 1851, it formed a part under the name of Port Phillip) by the River Murray and an imaginary line running in a south-easterly direction from its source in Forest Hill in the Australian Alps to Cape Howe, while the 141° East longitude divides it from South Australia, and Bass Strait from Tasmania.

BOUNDARIES.—Victoria is bounded on the north and northeast by New South Wales; on the west by South Australia; on the south by the Southern Ocean and Bass Strait; and on the south-east by the Pacific Ocean.

^{1.} On the Hunter River, 20 miles above Newcastle, is Maitland, the centre of the wheat-growing district of New South Wales.

The greatest length of the colony, from east to west, is about 420 miles, and the greatest breadth about 250 miles, while its area of nearly 88,000 square miles is slightly less than that of Great Britain.

But although Victoria is the smallest in area, it is the most densely peopled of all the Australian colonies. The actual populations of New South Wales and Victoria are nearly the same—both being over a million—but the density of population in the smaller colony is, of course, much greater than in the larger one, being, in Victoria, about 13, and, in New South Wales, only 4 to the square mile.

COASTS.—The coast line of Victoria is about 700 miles in length, and is indented by several inlets, the largest and most important of which is **Port Phillip Bay**.

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Other considerable inlets are Western Port, Waratah Bay, and Corner Inlet, to the east, and Portland Bay and Discovery Bay to the west, of Port Phillip Bay.

The largest *islands* are French Island and Phillip Island, in Western Port, and Snake Island, off Corner Inlet.

The principal headlands are **Cape Howe**, the easternmost point, **Wilson Promontory**, the southernmost point of Victoria as well as of the whole continent; and **Point Nepean** and **Point Lonsdale**, which form the "heads" at the entrance to Port Phillip Bay.

MOUNTAINS.—A chain of mountains, the southern part of the Great Dividing Range of Eastern Australia, extends across the colony from east to west, at a distance of from 60 to 70 miles from the coast.

The eastern part of the Cordillera is known as the Australian Alps, and the range terminates to the west in the **Pyrenees** and the **Grampians**. In these ranges, about 30 peaks rise over 4,000 feet, one-half of them over 5,000, and at least six over 6,000 feet—the loftiest, *Mount Bogong*, is 6,508 feet above the sea—but the average elevation of the Victorian mountains is only about 3,000 feet.

RIVERS.—The Australian Alps and the western ranges form the watershed between the **Murray River** system on the north and the basins of the numerous coastal streams on the south.

Into the Murray, which forms the northern frontier of the colony for 980 miles, flow the Goulburn, 345 miles in length, the Loddon (225 m.), the Campaspe (150 m.), the Orens (140 m.), and the Mitta Mitta (175 m.). The Avoca (163 m.) and the Wimmera (228 m.) rarely reach the Murray, generally terminating in salt lakes or marshes.

The chief coastal rivers are the **Snowy River** (300 m., only 120 miles of which, however, are within Victoria), the **Latrobe** (185 m.), the **Yarra Yarra** (150 m.), the **Hopkins** (155 m.), and the **Glenelg** (280 m.).

Lakes.—There are numerous salt and fresh water lakes, but most of them are shallow, and many are dry during the summer months. The largest are Lake Corangamite (90 square miles), Lake Colac (10 square miles), and the Gippsland Lakes.—Lakes Wellington, Victoria, King, and Reeves.

^{1.} Other lofty peaks in Victoria are Mount | feet ; Mount Cobbergs, 6,025 feet ; and Mount Feathertop, 6,308 feet ; Mount Hotham, 6,100 | Pilot, 6,020 feet.

CLIMATE.—The climate of Victoria is, on the whole, warm, dry, and distinctly healthy.

Victoria is not so hot as New South Wales or Queensland, still the temperature sometimes rises in January above 100° F. in the shade, and rarely falls in July, the coldest month, below the freezing-point. The rainfall averages 25 or 26 inches, but the air is so dry and the soil such, that moisture is absorbed much more quickly than in England.

PRODUCTIONS.—A rich soil, a warm and genial climate, and, in most parts, sufficient moisture, combine to give Victoria a high position in respect of her vegetable productions; the Victorian merino wool is unsurpassed in length of staple, softness, and lustre; while the colony is justly famed for its immense mineral wealth.

1. Pastoral Pursuits.—The pastoral industry is second to none in importance, and wool and other animal products and live stock amount to considerably more than half the total value of the exports of the colony.

2. Agriculture has made much progress of late years, and is becoming an important industry, not only along the coast, but also in the region north of the Dividing Range, although the rainfall there is so scanty and precarious that it has to be supplemented by irrigation.

Wheat of the finest quality, with oats, barley, maise, root crops, hay, and English grasses, are extensively cultivated, while both soil and climate are peculiarly adapted for the growth of the vine, the olive, and all kinds of fruit.

8. Mining for gold was, at one time, the most important industry, and it is to its enormously rich goldfields that Victoria owes its artraordinarily rapid progress. Victoria is *par excellence* the "Gold Colony," and fully one-third of its area is occupied by gold-bearing rocks. Since their discovery in 1851, the goldfields of Victoria have yielded over 56 million ozs. of the precious metal, valued at 225 millions sterling, or two-thirds of the gold raised in all Australasia.

4. Manufacturing Industry has made much progress in Victoria, but the products are almost entirely for home use.

COMMERCE.—Nearly half the trade is with England—the rest is principally with the neighbouring colonies.

The imports, in spite of heavy duties on most of the important articles, greatly exceed the exports, four-fifths of which consist of wool, gold, wheat and four, and live animals. Annual value, 36 millions sterling—imports, 23 millions; exports, 18 millions.³

Ports.-Melbourne, Geelong, and Portland are the chief ports.

Communications.—All the railways in Victoria are the property of the State. Over 2,700 miles are now open for traffic.

GOVERNMENT.—Victoria possesses responsible government. The Governor is appointed by the Crown, and there are two Houses of Parliament.

^{1.} In 1883, the gold produced reached the enormous amount of 3,150,000 ors., but in recent years the output has averaged 600,000 to 700,000 ors. In 1890, it was only 583,580 ors. The gold-mining population numbers about 25,000, of whom 8,000 are Chinese.

^{2.} The direct trade with the United Kingdom is very large, the imports therefrom amounting to about 9 millions sterling, and the exports thereto to between 5 and 6 millions.

The Revenue, in 1891, amounted to 81 millions sterling, the Expenditure to 91 millions. The Public Debt is over 431 millions, nearly the whole of which has been incurred in the construction of railways, water-works, school buildings, and other public works.

Education is amply provided for in the numerous schools and several colleges affiliated to the university of Melbourne. There is no State Church in Victoria.

DIVISIONS and TOWNS .-- Victoria is divided into 4 districts¹ More than one half of the people of Victoria live and 37 counties. Of the 60 cities, towns, and boroughs, the largest are in towns. Melbourne, Ballarat, Bendigo, and Geelong,

MELBOURNE, the capital of Victoria, and the most important commercial centre in the Southern Hemisphere, is situated on the Yarra, not far from the shores of Port Phillip Bay, on which stand its lovely suburbs of St. Kilda and Brighton, with Port Melbourne (formerly called Sandridge), its port, and Wil-liamstown, its outport. Including its suburbs, Melbourne now has a population of nearly half a million.

Other noteworthy towns, besides Melbourne, are Geelong, Ballarat, Ararat, Stawell, and Serviceton, on the Western Railway; Castlemaine, Bendigo, and Echuca, on the Northern Railway; Wodonga, the terminus of the North-Eastern Railway, and Beechworth, on a branch of the same line ; and Sale and Bairnsdale, on the *Eastern Railway*. On the coast, to the west of Port Phillip, are Warrnambool, Port Fairy or Belfast, and Portland.

Geelong (20), one of the oldest towns in Victoria, is noted as a wool port and for its "tweed" manufacture. Ballarat (37), is one of the most famous gold-mining towns in the world. Bendigo (38), is another gold-mining town, famous in the early annals of the colony.

EXAMINATION QUESTIONS ON VICTORIA.

1. Describe the boundaries of Victoria. By what name was this portion of Australia known prior to 1850? Whence was this name derived? Name the headlands on either side of this bay. 2. Name the principal mountains, rivers, and lakes of Victoria, and describe briefly its climate and productions. 3. To what two products does Victoria chiefly owe its great wealth? When was gold first dis-covered in the colony?

What are the chief exports and imports?
 With what country is most of the trade carried on? Name the chief ports.
 Under what form of government is Victoria?
 Describe briefly the capital of Victoria, and mention other noteworthy inland towns.

Name three ports on the south-western coast of Victoria.

8. For what are Geelong, Ballarat, and Bendigo

QUEENSLAND.

QUEENSLAND is another "New England," growing daily in wealth and population under the bright sun and cloudless sky of Australia. This immense colony occupies the whole of the north-eastern portion of the continent, and is bounded on the east by the Pacific Ocean, on the north by Torres Strait and the Gulf of Carpentaria, on the west by South Australia, and on the south by New South Wales.

The length of the colony, from north to south, is about 1,300 miles, the breadth 800 miles, and the coast-line 2,550 miles. Its area is 668,000 square miles, or considerably more than one-fourth of the continent. But the population of this vast colony, in 1891, was only 387,960, or about one person to every 2 square miles of area.

1. The four districts are Gippeland, in the | Wimmera, in the north-west; and Loddon, in south-cast; the Murray, in the north-cast; | the north-cantral part of the colony.

COASTS.—The extensive seaboard of Queensland includes the whole of the eastern coast from **Point Danger** to **Cape York**—the northernmost point of the continent—and also the eastern, and part of the southern, shores of the **Gulf of Carpentaria**.

Along the eastern coast, at a distance of from 10 to 150 miles, the vast natural breakwater of the Great Barrier Beef makes sea-voyaging a pleasure for more than 1,200 miles. There are numerous openings in the reefs through which vessels may, in stormy weather, pass from the open ocean to the smooth water between the reefs and the coast, but there is only one really safe passage for ships. The long voyage, from Torres Strait as far south as Cape Capricorn, is entirely within the sheltered channel thus formed.

Of the numerous bays and inlets by which the coasts of Queensland are indented, the best known is **Moreton Bay**, in the extreme south-east. The harbour of **Thursday Island**, an important port of call, is in Torres Strait.

The largest *islands* are **Stradbroke**, **Moreton**, and **Fraser** or Great Sandy Island, on the eastern coast; and the **Wellesley Islands** in the Gulf of Carpentaria.

NATURAL FEATURES.—The main features in the relief of Queensland, as of New South Wales, are (1) the coastlands, (2) the tablelands and mountains, and (3) the vast interior plains.

1. Mountains.—The **Coast Range** extends, under various names, from York Peninsula in the north to within a few miles of Brisbane. The **Main Range**, which forms the northern portion of the long cordillers of Eastern Australia, runs inland of the Coast Range, and may be said to extend from the **Macpher son Range**, on the borders of New South Wales, to Cape York. The average elevation of these mountains is only about 2,000 feet; no summits in the Main Range exceed 5,000 feet.³

2. Rivers.—The rivers of Queensland belong to four distinct systems: (1) those that flow eastward into the Pacific; (2) those that form the headwaters of the Darling, and thus belong to the beain of the Murray; (3) the streams that flow southwards, and many of those flowing westward from the Great Dividing Range, and are either lost in the sand or ultimately fall into the salt lakes of South Australia; and (4) those that flow northward into the Gulf of Carpentaria.

Of the numerous rivers which flow eastward into the Pacific, the principal are the Brisbane, the Mary, the Burnett, the Fitsroy, and the Burdekin.

In the interior, the Warrego, the Condamine or Balonne, and the Macintyre, flow into the Darling River. Further west, the Victoria or Barcoo flows, under the name of Cooper's Creek, into Lake Eyre, while the Diamantina loses itself in the stony desert to the north-east of that lake.

To the tropical basin of the Gulf of Carpentaria belong the Gregory, Flinders, Norman, Gilbert, Mitchell, and Batavia.

CLIMATE.—Although the northern half of Queensland is within the Tropics, the heat is less oppressive than it is further south, while hot winds and sudden changes of temperature are unknown. "During a large part of the year, the weather is fine, the sky cloudless, and the air dry and exhilarating."

^{1.} In the Coast Range, the highest points are | Range, and Mount Dairympis, 4,200 feet, in the Wooroonooran, 5,400 feet, in the Bellenden Ker | Mackay Range.

QUEENSLAND.

There are, of course, great varieties of climate, but it may be said, gener-ally, that the seaboard districts are hot and moist, while the interior plains are hot and dry, and that frost and cold winds are known only on the ele-vated uplands in the south and west. The rainfall on the coastlands (and especially in the north) is, on the whole, very heavy, and in some parts exces-sive, frequently amounting in the south part of Cook District to over 160 inches in the year. But in the western districts generally, the rains are scanty and irregular, while severe droughts are not unfrequent.

PRODUCTIONS.—The chief commercial products of Queensland are wool, gold, sugar, cattle, horses, sheep, tin, hides, and skins, and the principal industries are connected with the production of these commodities.

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INDUSTRIES.—The pastoral industry and mining are the chief pursuits in Queensland, and wool and gold are the staple products of the colony.1

1. Agriculture.-Agriculture is making steady progress, but only about a quarter of a million acres are as yet under cultivation. Maize and the sugarcane are the chief objects of culture, but wheat and rice, potatoes, bananas, pine-apples, oranges, grapes, and other fruits are also grown.

2. Mining .- Queensland is rich in minerals of all kinds, and mining, chiefly for gold, is the leading industry in many parts of the colony. Considerable quantities of copper, tin, and coal are also produced, and other minerals and metals are found.

3. Commerce.—The commerce of Queensland is chiefly with the other Aus-tralian Colonies, and, next to them, with the United Kingdom. Annual value, over 13¹/₂ millions sterling—Imports, 5 millions; exports, 8¹/₂ millions.*

4. Ports.-All the larger towns of Queensland are seaports, but almost all the foreign trade is centred in the four ports of Brisbane, Rockhampton, Townsville, and Maryborough.

5. Railways.-From each of the more important ports a railway has been constructed, running, with one or two exceptions, almost due west into the interior. Over 2,000 miles are now open for traffic, and about 500 miles are in course of construction.

GOVERNMENT.—The government of Queensland is vested in a Governor, aided by an Executive Council, and a Parliament of two Houses-the Legislative Council and the Legislative Assembly.

The **Bevenue**, in 1890, was 31 millions sterling, and the **Expenditure**, about 32 millions sterling; the **Public Debt**, incurred on account of immigration, railways, telegraphs, roads, bridges, and other remunerative public works, amounts to over 28 millions.

Education is free, secular, and compulsory. As in the other Australasian colonies, there is no State Church.

DIVISIONS and TOWNS.—Queensland is divided into 12 large districts, some of which, and portions of others, are subdivided into

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1. The pearl fishery in Torres Strait (at Thurs-day Island, Prince of Wales Island, Somerset, each to the value of about 34 millions a year-traw and refined sugar, hides and akins, tin, important industries. 2. The principal exports, the produce and imade_bécke de mer, and oysters.

counties. All the larger towns are in the eastern or Pacific division of the colony; there are few towns, and none of any considerable size, in the western districts.

Only one town-BRISBANE has above 50,000 inhabitants. Five other towns-Reakhampton, Maryborough, Gympie, Ipswich, and Townsville have between 10,000 and 15,000 inhabitants. Only a few of the western towns have a population of more than 1,000.

Brisbane (52), the capital of the colony and the seat of government, stands on the Brisbane River, about 25 miles above its outlet into Moreton Bay. The river is navigable for vessels drawing over 21 feet, and the trade with England and the other Australasian colonies is very large. Ipswich (10), which lies 24 miles west of Brisbane, is the centre of the productive coal mines in the basin of the Brener River. There are rich gold mines at Gympie. Maryborough is an important port on the Mary River, 26 miles above its mouth. The Port Curtis an important port on the mary invert, so miles above its means. The famous **Mount** District is chiefly noted for its rich gold mines, among them the famous **Mount Morgan** mine, which lies about 28 miles south-west of **Bookhampton**, the mean mild and wood port on the Fitzrov River. 40 miles above its mouth. The great gold and wool port on the Fitzroy River, 40 miles above its mouth. The Kennedy District is also famous for its rich goldfields. Charters Towers, Ravenswood, and Cape River are the chief gold-mining centres. Mackay is the centre of one of the largest sugar-producing districts in the colony. Townsville is an important port on Cleveland Bay. Cooktown is a rising port on the northern coast, about 1,000 miles north-west of Brisbane.

In the interior, the principal places are Roma, a flourishing pastoral centre on the Western Railway; Cioncurry and Oroydon, two important mining centres; and Normanton, the chief port of the Gulf region, at the head of navigation on the Norman River.

QUESTIONS ON QUEENSLAND.

1. What colony lies to the north of New South Wales? Point out its boundaries on the map. 2. Give some idea of its extent. What is its population?

population? 5. Name the chief headlands, and the principal inlets and islands, on the coast of Queensland. 4. What are the main features in the relief of Queensland? Name the chief mountain ranges and the principal rivers. 5. What characterizes the climate of Queens-land?

6. What are the commercial products of the colony? What are the leading pursuits? Name the two staple products. Point on the map to the four largest ports of Queensland. 7. Where are the pearl and the bechede-mer fahreise carried on? 8. What is the form of Government? How is the colony at present divided? 9. Describe the capital of Queensland, and name other important towns on the coast and in the interior.

SOUTH AUSTRALIA.

SOUTH AUSTRALIA¹ is, next to Western Australia, the largest colony on the continent, across which it extends from the shores of the Southern Ocean to the Gulf of Carpentaria and the Arafura Sea.

The colony is bounded on the north by the Gulf of Carpentaria and the Arafura Sea; on the south, by the Southern Ocean; on the cast, by Victoria, New South Wales, and Queensland; and on the west, by Western Australia.

1. South Australia Proper extends from the Bouthern Ocean to the 5th parallel of Bouth listitude. The Northern Territory schemd from the buth maridian of East longitude. On the say, the 5th parallel to the shores of the Indian Ocean. This colour sund its Northern Territory the 18th maridian.

Extent.—This vast territory measures over 1,800 miles from sea to sea, and has a total area of over 900,000 square miles, nearly one-third of the continent, and no less than 10 times the size of Great Britain, or 15 times the size of England and Wales. The entire population, however, in 1891, only numbered 319,145, an average of one person to every 3 square miles.

COASTS.—South Australia has a deeply indented coast-line of about 2.000 miles in length.

The principal *inlets* on the northern coast are **Queen's Channel**, Port Darwin, Van Diemen Gulf, and Arnhem Bay; with Blue Mud Bay and Limmen Bight in the Gulf of Carpentaria.

The southern coast is indented by the much larger inlets of **Spencer Gulf** and **St. Vincent's Gulf**, in and on either side of which are numerous smaller openings. The Gulf of St. Vincent communicates with the ocean by two channels— *Investigator Strait* and *Backstairs Passage*. The **Coorong** is a long arm of the sea on the eastern side of **Encounter Bay**, from which it is divided by a narrow tongue of land.

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The largest *islands* belonging to South Australia are **Kangaroo Island**, 85 miles long and about 30 miles broad, at the mouth of the Gulf of St. Vincent, on the south coast, and **Melville** and **Bathurst Islands**, off the northern coast, with **Groote Eylandt**, in the Gulf of Carpentaria.

The principal *headlands* are **Cape Jervis**, **Cape Spencer**, and **Cape Catastrophe**, on the south coast ; and, in the Northern Territory, **Cape Van Diemen**, on Melville Island.

NATURAL FEATURES.—Though South Australia has no mountain ranges comparable to those of the eastern colonies, its surface is sufficiently diversified by fertile plains, several long hill ranges, and well-wooded valleys, while the treeless, waterless, and arid districts often teem with mineral wealth.

1. Mountains.—The chief mountain ranges in South Australia Proper are the Mount Lofty Range,¹ the Flinders Range,³ and the rugged Gawler Range in Eyre's Peninsula. In the south-eastern part of the colony are **Mount Gambier**, Mount Schanck, Mount Terrible, and other isolated peaks that were formerly volcances, their craters being occupied by beautiful little fresh-water lakes.²

2. Rivers.-With the exception of the Murray River in the south-east, South Australia Proper has no large rivers, but the Northern Territory is (for Australia) exceptionally well-watered.

The Gawler, Torrens, and other streams which flow into St. Vincent's Gulf, are nearly or entirely dry for several months every year.

In the Northern Territory, several noble streams enable sea-going vessels to penetrate into the interior for many miles. Among them are the Roper, Vic. toria, Daly, Adelaide, Liverpool, and the South and East Alligator rivers.

3. Lakes.—None of the other Australian colonies have so many or such large lakes as South Australia, but, though some of the great salt lakes are over a hundred miles in length, they are of no service to the colony, as they are liable to be dried up, and are absolutely unfitted for navigation.

1. Its principal peaks are Mount Lofty, 8 miles	and Mount Brown, both upwards of \$,000 feet in height.
to the east of Adelaide, attaining a height of 2,334	height.
feet above the sea, and Mount Barker (2,331	S. The Blue Land. on Mount Vampler, 18 240
feet.)	feet deep, and is surrounded by precipitous
2. The highest summits are Mount Remarkable	rocks, covered with luxuriant vegetation.

One, and the largest, group of salt lakes occupies a vast area to the north of This group includes Lake Eyre, Lake Torrens, and Lake Spencer Gulf. Gairdner-each of them between 90 and 100 miles in length-with several smaller basins, such as Lake Frome, Lake Blanche, &c. Lake Alexandrina. at the mouth of the Murray, is fresh, but shallow and difficult of navigation.

CLIMATE.—The climate of South Australia is hotter and drier than that of the other colonies in Australia, but for nine months in the year it is agreeable. In the Northern Territory the climate is tropical, except on the tablelands, where the temperature is lower.

The climate generally resembles that of Southern Italy. There is no winter in the English sense of the term, though slight frosts may be experienced on the plains, and ice seen on the hills, in July and August, which are the coldest months.1

PRODUCTIONS.—Wheat and flour, wool and copper, are the staple products of South Australia, and both climate and soil are extremely favourable to the extensive cultivation of the vine, the olive, the mulberry, and other plants that require dry heat in order to come to perfection. The soil and climate of the Northern Territory are suitable for the cultivation of almost all tropical plants.²

1. Agriculture -- South Australia is pre-eminently the agricultural colony of Australia, and the wheat grown on the Adelaide Plains is the finest in the world. Viticulture is also an important industry, and, as a wine producing country, the colony already takes high rank, while oranges and other fruits are unsurpassed in size and flavour.

The pastoral industry, however, still yields the most valuable of all the staple products of the colony, namely, wool, the annual clip amounting to 45 million lbs. 8

2. Minerals .- The mineral resources include vast deposits of copper, iron, and silver-lead, and some gold, bismuth, and tin also exist. Of these, copper is by far the most important, and has been to South Australia what gold has been to Victoria, and coal to New South Wales. *

3. Commerce.-Nearly the whole of the trade of South Australia, which is very large in proportion to the population, is carried on with the United Kingdom, New South Wales, and the other Australasian Colonies. Annual value, 17 millions sterling-imports, 81 millions ; exports, 82 millions.

4. Ports.-The principal ports are PORT ADELAIDE, PORT AUGUSTA, and PORT PIRLE in the south, and PORT DARWIN in the north.

4. Copper was first discovered in one of the hills overlooking Adelaide. The first mine to be opened was at Kapunda, 50 miles north-east of Adelaide, in 1533, but this was cellpsed by the discovery, two years later, of the famous Burra sine, one of the richest copper mines in the world. Even more extensive deposite of Monata in Yorke Peulasula, and the mines there, although they have been worked for 20 years, show no signs of exhaustion. The numerous and important discoveries of gold, copper, tin, iron, lead, and other miners in the work and there attracts and there attracts and the miners and there attracts and the miners and the more set of the se

^{1.} The annual rainfall at Adelaide has averaged about 21 inches during the past 60 years, but in 1850-the metters year yet recorded—it rese to 21 The inches. 2 The indigenous plants and native animals are similar to those of the adjoining colonias are similar to those of the adjoining colonias are similar to those of the adjoining colonias include the famore, the most striking are gum trees, acadias, and grass trees; while the latter include the kangaroo and other marsupials, some hundreds of species of birds, among which are the Emu, the laughing jackas, and other char-acteristic Australian birds, many species of the Knublesone mesquite. 31 Camebia are used for transport in the in-ter. There is a large cetrich farm near Port Augusta.

5. Communications.-There are 4,500 miles of roads, nearly 2,000 miles of railways, and over 5,500 miles of telegraph lines.1

GOVERNMENT.-A Governor, appointed by the Home Government, is at the head of the executive. The legislative power is exercised by a Parliament, which consists of a Legislative Council and a House of Assembly.²

The Northern Territory is governed by a Resident, appointed by the authorities at Adelaide, and assisted by a small staff.

DIVISIONS.—The settled portion of the colony is divided into Counties, Hundreds, and District Councils. There are also four Pastoral Districts-the eastern, western, northern, and northeastern.⁸

TOWNS.-Being principally a pastoral and agricultural country, South Australia contains very few towns of any considerable size. Adelaide, the capital, with a population, including its suburbs, of 120,000, is the only large town, and Port Adelaide is the only other town with a population of over 5,000.

ADELAIDE, the capital of South Australia and the seat of government, stands in a plain on the small river Torrens, about midway between the shore of the Gulf of St. Vincent and the Mount Lofty range of mountains. Port Adelaide is situated on a fine natural harbour, formed by an inlet of the Gulf.

Other important ports are Port Victor, at the head of Encounter Bay; Port Wakefield, near the head of the Gulf of St. Vincent ; Wallaroo, the seaport of the famous Wallaroo copper mines ; Moonta, another copper-mining centre and port; Port Pirie, the principal wheat port of the colony; and Port Augusta, the most northern port in South Australia Proper.

Of the inland towns, the most noteworthy are Gawler; Kapunda, a coppermining centre; Morgan, an important river-port on the north-west bend of the Murray; and Kooringa or Burra, the town of the famous Burra Burra copper mine.

In the Northern Territory the principal place is PALMERSTON, the capital and chief port, situated on the eastern side of a splendid natural harbour, the well-known Port Darwin, and connected by rail with Pine Creek, 150 miles to the south.

EXAMINATION QUESTIONS ON SOUTH AUSTRALIA.

What are the boundaries of South Australia? What parallel divides the colony into two great divisions? Name these divisions.
 What two great gulfs indent the coast of South Australia Proper? Name the chief inlets on the coast of the Northern Territory, and mention also the largest islands and chief head ands in each division.
 What tracks are the second s

What are the characteristic features in the relief of South Australia ? Name the chief mountain ranges, rivers, and lakes.

1. The Overland Telegraph Line to Port Dar-ers was commenced in August, 1870, and com-pleted in August, 1872, at a cost of nearly half a million sterling, or twice as much as the original estimate. This stupendous work crosses the con-tinent almost along the route followed by Adelaids PSnart in 1860. The distance from Adelaids to Darwin is 1,973 miles. A The R Fort Darwin is 1,973 miles. The R for the arguments to a little over 12 The Pablic Debt amounts to a little over 12

4. Compare the climate of South Australia with that of the other colonies. 5. What are the staple products of South Aus-

What are suit susperproductions of the commerce chieffy carried on? Name the principal ports.
 What is the form of government? How is the Northern Territory governed?
 Bescribe brieffy the principal towns of South Australia. Name the chief towns in the North-

millions, one-half of which was spent on rail-ways and tramways, and the rest on water-works and water conservation, harbour improvements, telegraphs, roads, school buildings, and other reproductive public works. 3. In the Northern Territory, four counties-*Patimerston, Mainwealty, Disraeit, and Ross-bery-have been formed in the north-west, and one-Gladstons-in the basin of the Roper River on the Guil coast.*

WESTERN AUSTRALIA.

WESTERN AUSTRALIA¹ includes the whole of the continent to the west of the meridian of 129° E., and is the largest, but the least populous, of all the Australian colonies.

Western Australia is bounded on the north and west by the Indian Ocean, on the east by South Australia and its Northern Territory, and on the south by the Southern Ocean.

This vast colony has an area of over one million square miles, fully onethird of the continent, and no less than 18 times the size of England and Wales.

The greatest length, from Cape Londonderry on the north to Peak Head on the south, is 1,490 miles; and the greatest breadth, from Steep Point on the west to the 129th meridian on the east, is 850 miles. The total area is estimated at 975,920 square miles, or, inclusive of the contiguous islands, over one million square miles. The population, in 1891, amounted to 49,200.

COASTS.—The coasts of Western Australia are indented by many inlets and estuaries, and are fringed by numerous islands.

Western Australia is rather deficient in good harbours, the only inlets deserving mention are King George Sound on the south coast, Sharks Bay on the west coast, King Sound on the north-west coast, and Cambridge Gulf on the northern coast.

Of the numerous islands along the coast, only two are as yet of any importance. These are Dirk Hartog's Island off Sharks Bay, and Rottnest Island off Freemantle, both on the west coast.

The principal headlands are **Cape Londonderry**, the most northerly point of the colony, **North-West Cape**, **Steep Point**, **Cape Naturaliste**, and **Cape Leeuwin**, the extreme south-western point of the colony, and **Peak Head**, the southernmost point.

NATURAL FEATURES.—The surface of Western Australia is less diversified than that of any of the other Australian colonies, and the whole country is virtually a vast plain, often undulating, but generally flat, and broken only by the hill ranges, which stretch along the seaboard, and by isolated elevations and depressions in the interior.

1. Mountains.—The principal ranges are the **Stirling Range** in the south, the **Darling Range** in the west, and the **King Leopold Range** in the north. None of the mountains of Western Australia exceed, so far as has yet been ascertained, 4,000 feet in height, and few of them attain an elevation of more than 2,000 feet. But many of them present a striking appearance, inasmuch as they rise abruptly from level plains.

2. Rivers.—The rivers of Western Australia are, with few exceptions, simply storm water channels, which carry off immense floods in the rainy season, but are dry, or consist only of occasional pools of water, during the rest of the year.

The **Swan** is the only river in the settled districts in the south-west which is capable of being navigated to any extent. The northern and north-western rivers have much longer courses, but few of them run throughout the year, and navigation is generally limited to the estuaries of the larger streams, such as

^{1.} Western Australia was originally known as | however, was confined to the south-western the "Swan River Settlement"—that settlement, | corner of the present colony.

the Murchison, the Gascoyne, the Ashburton, the Fortescue, and the De Grey. The Kimberley Division, in the extreme north of the colony, is watered by the Fitzroy, the Ord, and other rivers.

3. Lakes.—The so-called lakes.—Lakes Moore, Austin, Barlee, &c.—are really immense salt pans or marshes, perfectly dry, "except after heavy rains, when they may be covered with a few inches of water."

CLIMATE. - The climate of Western Australia is one of the most healthful and enjoyable in the world. In the north, there is a true tropical climate; in the central portions of the coast region, the climate is like that of Southern Italy; while in the south-west it is like that of the south of England, but the summer is much hotter, and the winter brighter and not nearly so cold.

The rainfall varies from about 40 inches on the coast, from Albany to Freemantle, to less than 20 inches in the hills 50 miles inland, while in the interior there are only occasional showers during thunderstorms.

PRODUCTIONS.—Wool is the staple product, and the annual clip exceeds in value the pearls and pearl-shells, the timber and sandalwood, the gold, and other exportable produce of the colony.

The immense forests contain many valuable timber trees, such as the jarrah, the *tuart* or white gum, the *karri*, the *red gum* and *blue gum* trees, and other eucalypti, together with *shea oaks* and *wattles*—the bark of the latter being almost as valuable for tanning as oak-bark.

INDUSTRIES.—Notwithstanding recent discoveries of large and productive goldfields, the large increase of land under cultivation, the valuable pearl-fisheries, and the large and increasing timber trade, the pastoral industry is by far the most important occupation, and the chief source of wealth to the colony.

The mineral resources of Western Australia are as yet imperfectly known. but when the deposits of gold, copper, lead, tin, and coal, now worked or known to exist, are fully developed, the colony may prove to be as richly endowed in this respect as any of the other colonies.

Commerce.-About half the trade of Western Australia, which consists in the export of raw produce, such as wool, timber and sandalwood, pearls shell and pearls, gold, hides and skins, guano, bêche de mer, and horses, and in the import of manufactured goods, is carried on with the United Kingdom, and the rest mainly with the other Australian Colonies. Value, in 1890, 11 millions sterling-imports, £874,000; exports, £672,000.

The chief ports are Freemantle and Albany in the south, and Derby and Wyndham in the north. The mail steamers call regularly at Albany on King George Sound. There are about 600 miles of railway open for traffic, and several hundred miles are under construction.

GOVERNMENT.-Western Australia now possesses full responsible government. The New Constitution was proclaimed at Perth on October 21st, 1890.1

The Governor is appointed by the Crown, and the legislative authority is vested in a nominated Legislative Council and an elected Legislative Assembly.

DIVISIONS .- There are 6 land divisions, namely, the South-West Division, the greater part of which has been subdivided into counties, and the Gascoyne, North-West, Kimberley, Eucla, and Eastern Divisions.

Towns.—The chief towns are PERTH (9), the capital of the colony, prettily situated on a fine lake-like reach of the Swan River, about 12 miles above its port, Freemantle (5), at the mouth of the river ; Guildford, also on the Swan, 9 miles above Perth, a charming little town surrounded by fields and vineyards ; York (3), 80 miles east of Perth, on the Eastern Railway, which connects at Beverley with the Great Southern Railway, which runs thence to the principal port of the colony, Albany (2), an important port of call on King George Sound. Geraldton is the capital and chief port of the Victoria District in the northern part of the South-West Division. Boebourne, the chief town in the North-West Division, is connected by a tramway, 8 miles in length, with the port of **CossaOk**, a centre of the pearl and pearl-shell fisheries. The Kimberley widdfaids are about 250 miles wat of **Derby** the angite and chief next of the goldfields are about 350 miles west of Derby, the capital and chief port of the district, on King Sound, and 200 miles south of Wyndham, a rising port on Cambridge Gulf. Eucla is a telegraph station at the head of the great Australian Bight, and near the border of South Australia.

QUESTIONS ON WESTERN AUSTRALIA.

1. What portion of Australia is included within the colony of Western Australia? What colony adjoins it on the east? What with the area and population of Western

Australia?

Australis? 8. Name the principal inlets, headlands, and islands on the coasts of Western Australia. 4. Describe briefly the natural features of West-ern Australia, and name the chief mountain ranges and the principal rivers.

5. What countries in Europe have a climate resembling that of Western Australia? 6. Name the chief productions. What is the staple product? 7. What is the present form of government? When did the colony obtain full responsible government? capital and chief ports of Western Australia. Which of the latter is an important port of call?

Australia.

TASMANIA.

TASMANIA¹ is an island, nearly as large as Ireland, situated to the south-east of Australia, from which it is separated by Bass Strait, a broad channel of from 80 to 150 miles in width.

Tasmania is bounded by Bass Strait on the north, by the Tasman Sea on the east, and by the Southern Ocean on the south and west.

The "Garden of the South," as Tasmania is justly called, is a "beautiful and well-watered island, rich in harbours and inlets, traversed by high mountain well-watered island, rich in harbours and inlets, traversed by high mountain chains, full of crags, glens, and ravines of commanding appearance. Every-where on the coast there are good anchorages and many excellent harbours. Altogether, the coast offers the most charming scenery, being for the most part bold and rocky. The interior, especially, is delightful, and here are united, so to speak, the climate of Italy, the beauty of the Apennines, and the fertility of England. Mountain and valley, hill and dale, crowned with high forests and rich neutre grounds in the plains effort the most plassing variety " rich pasture grounds in the plains, afford the most pleasing variety."

This heart-shaped island is about 200 miles in length from north to south, and a little less from east to west, while the total area, including the lakes and islands, is over 26,000 square miles. But although the area is more than half that of England, the population is less than 150,000, or one-tenth that of Wales.

^{1.} Teamania takes its name from the Dutch | the Governor of the Dutch East Indies, under navigator, Tasman, who discovered it in 1642, whose orders he had sailed to explore the and named it Van Discover's Land, in honour of "Greet Stouth Land."

COASTS.—" The comparatively smooth **north coast** is broken by the long estuary of the Tamar; the **west coast** is a line of cliffs with one great inlet, Macquarie Harbour, about the middle; but the southern outcurve and the **east coast** are split into a labyrinth of long inlets, irregular peninsulas, and rocky islands, like Western Scotland."

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The Tasmanian coast is, on the whole, bold and rocky, but many of the numerous estuaries and bays form excellent harbours. Even on the inhospitable west coast there are at least three accessible ports—Port Davey, Fort Macquarie, and the estuary of the Pieman River. On the north coast, besides Port Dairymple at the mouth of the Tamar, there are several smaller harbours. The south and south-cast coasts are studded with safe bays and harbours, the principal being Port Arthur, in Tasman Peninsula, Storm Bay, leading into the estuary of the Derwent (on which stands Hobart, the capital of the colony), and Port Esperance, on the western side of the D'Entrecasteaux Channel.

Of the 55 islands which belong to Tasmania, the largest are Flinders Island and Barren Island, in the Furneaux Group, at the east end of Bass Strait, and King's Island at the western entrance; with Hunter's Islands off the northwest coast, Schouten and Maria Islands on the east coast, and the double Bruni Island on the south.

The three chief *peninsulas* are **Freycinet Peninsula** on the east coast, and the double **Tasman and Forestier Peninsula**, with **Ralph Bay Peninsula**, on the south-east coast.

NATURAL FEATURES.—Tasmania is a mountainous country, and high ranges of hills and isolated peaks, rocky precipices and tortuous ravines, mountain lakes, rushing streams, and picturesque waterfalls, alternate with beautiful valleys, fertile plains, and grassy uplands.

1. Mountains.—On either side of the deep valley or glen, which runs right across the island from the estuary of the Tamar on the north to that of the Derwent on the south, are several irregular mountain ranges and extensive tracts of high tableland, which culminate in **Gradie Mountain**, 5,069 feet, on the west, and **Ben Lomond**, 5,010 feet, on the east.

2. Rivers.—Tasmania is well-watered by numerous rivers, some of them of considerable size, the largest being the **Derwent** in the south and the **Tamar** in the north. The Derwent has a course of 130 miles, and is the longest river in the colony. HOBART, the capital, stands on the western side of its estuary, which forms one of the finest harbours in the Southern Hemisphere. The Tamar, the chief river of the north, is a tidal river 45 miles in length, formed by the confluence of the North and South Esk at LAUNOESTON. The **Davey** and the **Huon** rivers in the south are also navigable streams. On the west, the chief rivers are the **Gordon** and the **Pieman**.

3. Lakes.—Tasmania shows itself to be a truly alpine region by the possession of numerous mountain lakes near the sources of its rivers. The largest are the Great Lake, 12 miles in length and covering an area of 44 square miles, Lake St. Clair, Lake Echo, and Lake Sorell, all drained into the Derwent.

CLIMATE.—The climate of Tasmania is admirable.¹ It is hardly ever hot or unpleasantly cold, and the weather is less variable than it is in England.²

Tasmania is undoubtedly one of the healthlest countries in the world, and the cause assigned for most of the deaths is always "old age." The hot winds of Australia rarely reach Tasmania, and, when they do, they are never of long duration. It is naturally cooler in summer than any of the adjoining colonies, and the winters are as mild as those of the south of France. Snow rarely falls at Hobart, but Mount Wellington, which overlooks the town, is sometimes covered with it even in the summer months. The rainfall varies greatly, not only in different parts of the island, but also at the same place.

PRODUCTIONS.—With some remarkable exceptions, the *indig*enous plants and native animals of Tasmania are similar to those of Australia. Both climate and soil are extremely favourable to the cultivation of English cereals and fruits, and sheep, cattle, and horses thrive on the luxuriant pastures, while the rich mines of tin, gold, and coal are a great source of wealth to this prosperous colony.

1. Agriculture.-Most of the European grains, fruits, and vegetables can be cultivated and brought to perfection in this colony, and some tropical plants also thrive in certain localities.

2. Minerals.—Mining, principally for tin and gold, is the most important industry in the colony, but many rich mines of coal and silver-lead are also worked, and excellent slate and stone are quarried. Iron ore exists in abundance, and copper, sinc, bismuth, antimony, asbestos, and precious stones are also found.¹

3. Commerce.—The commerce of Tasmania is carried on almost entirely with the adjoining colonies and the mother country. Annual value, a little over 31 millions sterling, the *imports* being about one-fifth larger than the *exports*.

Wool and minerals, principally tin and gold, comprise more than half the *exports*—the rest include green fruit and jam, potatoes, timber and bark, hops, hides and skins, sheep and horses, &c. There are about 6,000 miles of good roads and over 400 miles of railways. HOBART and LAUNGESTON are the two chief ports of the colony.

GOVERNMENT.—The Parliament of Tasmania consists of a Legislative Council and a House of Assembly. The Governor is aided by an Executive Council.

The Revenue, in 1890, amounted to a little over, and the Expenditure to a little under, three-quarters of a million. The Public Debt, in the same year, was about 6⁴ millions sterling, the whole raised for public works.

Education is compulsory and unsectarian. The elementary schools are under Government control. There are many grammar schools and private colleges, and an Act of 1889 authorised the establishment of a university at Hobart.

DIVISIONS and TOWNS.—Tasmania is divided into 18 **Counties**, and these are again subdivided into **Parishes**. The largest towns are **Hobart**, on the Derwent, in the south, and **Launceston**, on the Tamar, in the north.

^{1.} The extensive and extremely rich deposits of tin ore at Mount Bischoff, in the north-west of the island, were discovered in 1872, and this famous mine, together with the productive workings round Ringsrooms and Portland, in the extreme north-satern corner, have yielded in all about 5 million pounds' worth of tin-the annual output of ore now amounts to about \$50,000. Gold occurs throughout the northern and western districts, both in alluvium and in

quarts veins. The principal gold mines are as Beaconsfield, on the western side of the Tamar, at Mount Lysel, and along the Queen River, and around Corinna on the Pleman River. Important discoveries of silver and silver-lead ware made, in 1859, as Mount Schhan on the was widely distributed, but the total output, herever, does not exceed 50,000 tons a year.

HOBART (36), the capital and seat of government, is picturesquely situated at the foot of Mount Wellington, on the River Derwent, about 12 miles from its mouth. Launceston (22), the only other large town, is a fine it of the Tamar, about 40 miles from its mouth (Port Dalrymple), and at the confluence of the North and South Esk rivers.

The most important of the smaller towns are Beaconsfield, a gold-mining centre on the west bank of the River Tamar ; Waratah, the township at the foot of the famous Mount Bischoff, the tin from which is conveyed by rail to Emu Bay (Burnie); Ringarooma, the shipping port for the tin mines in the north-east; Devonport, which includes Formby, with Torquay (Devonport East) at the month of the Mersey; Stanley or Circular Head, the chief port in the north-west; Corinna, the centre of the Pieman River gold-fields; Mount Zeehan, an important silver-mining centre on the west coast; Franklin, on the Huon River, famous for its apples, pears, and jam fruits; and Fingal, a coal-mining town on the River South Esk. There are a large number of other delightful little towns and pretty villages in this prosperous and pre-eminently British colony.

QUESTIONS ON TASMANIA.

Where is Tasmania? By what name was the island formerly known? What strait divided it from the Australian continent? What see lies between it and New Zealand?
 Describe briefly the coasts of Tasmania, and enumerate the principal openings, islands, and peningulas.
 What kind of surface has Tasmania? Name its two highest mountains and two longest rivers.
 What kind of olimate does it onloy?
 What kind of olimate does it onloy?

are found in Tasmania? What minerals are found at Mount Bischoff and Mount Zeehan? 6. With which countries is the commerce of Tasmania mostly carried on ? Name the princi-pal articles of export from the colony. 7. What is the form of Government? 8. How is Tasmania divided? Describe briefly the capital and the second largest town in the island. Bay on what irrer each of them stands. 9. Name some of the smaller towns in Tas-mania.

NEW ZEALAND.

THE COLONY OF NEW ZEALAND¹ consists of two large islands known as the North Island and the South Island, together with a much smaller island called Stewart Island, to the south of South Island, and a number of outlying islands collectively known as the Off Islands-the whole group being situated in the South Pacific Ocean, about 1.000 miles to the south-east of Australia.²

The South Pacific Ocean is the boundary of New Zealand on all sides. That part of it which lies between New Zealand and Australia is now distinguished as the Tasman Sea, in honour of the first discoverer of New Zealand and Tasmania.

With the exception of the northern portion of North Island, which bends towards the north-west, the islands extend in a south-west to north-east direction for nearly 1,200 miles, but a straight line from the North Cape, in North Island, to the South Cape, in Stewart Island, does not exceed 900 miles in length. The breadth varies from a few miles, as at Auckland, to 250 miles, the average being about 120 miles. The total area of the colony is over 100,000 square miles, or considerably more than that of Great Britain.

2. In shape, New Zealand, as seen on the map, resembles a top-boot, turned upside down,

broken in two just above the instep, and having the toe pointing towards Australia-the North Risand representing the foot, the South Island the top or leg, and Sievard Island "the torn loop." New Zealand thus resembles Haly in ahape, as it also does in size, climate, and matural conditions generally, and, "if Isly were insular and surrounded by vast tracts of water, the re-semblance would be complete."

^{1.} New Zealand was discovered in December, 1860, by the famous Dutch navigator, Tasman, who gave it the name, first of all of States or States-densities, in honour of the States-General or Parliament of Holland, afterwards altering it to Nova Zealanda, after his native province of Zealand in Holland.

COASTS.—The coasts of New Zealand nearly equal in extent the coasts of Great Britain, but though they are, in parts, deeply indented by numerous inlets, they are not so rich in harbours and navigable estuaries as the British coasts.

1. Inlets.-The chief inlets in the North Island are the Bay of Islands, Hauraki Gulf, and the Bay of Plenty, on the north-east; Poverty Bay and Hawke Bay, on the east; Palliser Bay and Port Nicholson, on the south.

The principal openings in the South Island are Golden Bay and Tasman Bay, on the north; Gloudy Bay, on the north-east; Pegasus Bay, with Port Lyttelton, on the east; Otago Harbour, on the south-east; Eluff Harbour, on the south; and Chalky Inlet, Dusky Bay, and Milford Sound, on the south-west.

2. Straits.—The principal straits are **Cook Strait**, a navigable channel, from 15 to 80 miles in width, between North and South Island; and **Foveaux** Strait, 15 miles in width, between South Island and Stewart Island.

3. Capes.—The principal headlands in the North Island are Cape Maria Van Diemen, the most westerly point; North Cape, the most northerly ; East Cape, the most easterly ; and Cape Palliser, the most southerly point of the island. Cape Egmont is the extreme point of the great outcurve on the west coast. In the South Island the chief capes are Cape Parewell, the most northerly point; East Head, on the east; The Bluff, on the south; and West Cape, on the west.¹

4. Islands.—There is a considerable number of islands and islets on the coasts of the main islands, such as the Three Kings off the extreme northern coast, the Great Barrier and other islands on the north-east coast of North Island, D'Urville and Arapawa Islands on the north-east coast of South Island, and Resolution and other islands on the south-west coast. Kapiti Island is in Cook Strait, and Buapuke Island in Foveaux Strait.

The Off Islands of New Zealand include several island groups and islets situated some hundreds of miles to the north, east, and south of the main islands. They include the **Chatham Islands**, about 536 miles to the east of Lyttelton; the **Anckland Islands**, 180 miles, and **Campbell Island**, about 520 miles to the south of South Island; the **Bounty Islands** and the **Antipodes Islets**, about 470 miles east of Stewart Island; and the **Kermadeo Islands**, a group 600 miles north-east of Auckland.

NATURAL FEATURES.—The surface of New Zealand is agreeably diversified by lofty mountains, wooded hills, well-grassed plains, fertile valleys, beautiful lakes, and swiftly flowing rivers. In the South Island, the snow-covered "cloud-piercing" Southern Alps, with their huge glaciers and alpine lakes, rival those of Switzerland, while the lofty volcances and the wonderful lakes and hot springs of the North Island are among the most marvellous physical phenomena on the globe.

1. Mountains.-With the exception of a few lofty volcanic peaks, the mountains of *North Island* are of moderate elevation, and do not vie in grandeur or magnitude with the great ranges which traverse the South Island and rise, in the massive Southern Alps, far above the snow-line.

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^{1.} At the south of Sissent Island is South | an adjacent islet, and is the southernmost point Cape. South West Cape is the extreme point of | of New Zealand.

In the North Island, the main range extends, under various names, from the north-eastern outcurve to the shores of Cook Strait-the two principal sections being the Ruahine Range and the Tararua Mountains.

To the south of Lake Taupo rise the lofty cone of **Tongariro**, an active vol-cano, 6,500 feet in height, and the still loftier and more massive **Ruapehu**, an extinct volcano, 9,195 feet above the sea. **Mount Egmont** is an extinct volcano, in the centre of a rounded promontory on the south-west coast of the island.

In the South Island, the main range is, as in the North Island, known by different names in different parts. The central and loftiest portion of the chain is known as the Southern Alps, which rise far above the limit of perpetual snow. The culminating point, *Mount Cook*, rises to a height of 13,350 feet. This massive mountain, and many other heights, are covered with perpetual snow, while the higher valleys are filled with immense glaciers, which feed the alpine lakes, the basins of which were formed by ancient glaciers of still greater extent. Stewart Island is also mountainous, but its highest peak, Mount Anglem, is only 3,200 feet in height.

The most extensive plains in New Zealand are the Canterbury Plains, which extend from Banks' Peninsula to the Southern Alps, a distance of about 100 miles.

2. Rivers.-New Zealand abounds in rivers, and running streams are numerous everywhere. Though some of the rivers are of considerable length, none are navigable for more than a short portion of their course. The longest rivers are the Waikato, in North Island, and the Clutha, in South Island.

3. Lakes.-The lakes of New Zealand are doubly interesting-those of North Island being of volcanic origin, while the alpine lakes of South Island have been formed by glacial action.

The largest lakes in North Island are Lake Taupo, nearly in the centre of the island, and Lakes Tarawera, Rotorua, and Rotomahana,1 in the Hot Lake District.²

In the South Island there are a number of true alpine lakes on the slopes of the Southern Alps, the largest of which are Te Anau, Manipori, Wakatipu, Wanaka, and Hawea. There is also an extensive sheet of fresh water-Lake Ellesmere—on the east coast, near Banks Peninsula.³

CLIMATE.—The climate is temperate and healthy, and differs only from that of Great Britain in being warmer and more equable, while the air is drier and more elastic. High winds and gales are frequent, and rain falls all the year round.

The prevailing winds are from the north-west, and the rainfall is much heavier on the western than on the eastern coasts-the amount falling at Taranaki, on the west coast of North Island, being more than double the fall at Napier, on the opposite side of the island; while in the South Island nearly five times as much rain falls on the west coast as on the east.

Plants and Animals.-With one or two doubtful exceptions, there are scarcely any truly indigenous animals, but the native plants are wonderfully peculiar, and most of them are found nowhere else.

Roto, in the Maori language, means "lake."
 The Hot Lake District, between lake Taupo and the Bay of Plenty, is remarkable for its hot lakes mud volcances, boiling springs, and the exquisite terraces-which, alas, were de-stroyed in 1989, when Mount Tarousera, till then believed to be a wholly extinct volcano, broke
 For a detailed description of the mount-data of the distribution of the distribution of the distribution of the distribution of the mount-data of the distribution of the distribution of the mount-data of the distribution of the distribution of the mount-data of the distribution o

INHABITANTS.—With the exception of about 42,000 Maoris, 4,500 Chinese, and about 15,000 Germans, Danes, Scandinavians, French, Americans, &c., the people of New Zealand are British or of British origin—more than one-half of them born in the colony, the rest being settlers from Great Britain and Ireland.

The **Maoris** (i.e., the aborigines or natives), as the natives of New Zealand call themselves, are the finest in physique and the highest in intelligence of all the Polynesian peoples. In character, the Maoris are "warlike, courageous, quick at learning, good at imitation, fond of oratory, and susceptible of strong religious feelings; but they are vain and proud, revengeful and jealous, though not devoid of good qualities, and are now on good terms with the colonists."

The British colonization of the islands may be said to date from 1814, when the first missionary settlement was established at the Bay of Islands. In 1891, the total population (exclusive of the Maoris)¹ amounted to 625,662, an average of 6 per square mile.

INDUSTRIES.—New Zealand is, first and foremost, a sheepfarming and, therefore, a *wool-producing* country, also exporting large quantities of frozen mutton; secondly, a cattle-rearing country, exporting hides and frozen beef; thirdly, an agricultural and fruitgrowing country, exporting grain and farm products largely; and, lastly, a mining country, producing gold, coal, silver, and other minerals.

The pastoral industry is by far the most important, and the available land is mainly used for rearing **aheep** and **cattle**. Wool is the staple product, and over 100 million lbs. are now annually exported, nearly the whole of it going to London. The trade in frozen meat is now very large and rapidly increasing.

But although the colony is mainly pastoral, it is also very largely agricultural, and produces more wheat, oats, and barley than any other Australasian colony. All kinds of English fruits and vegetables thrive in almost all parts of the colony, and grapes and oranges come to perfection in the warmer parts of North Island.

The mineral resources of New Zealand are almost as rich as those of any other Australasian colony. They include rich deposits of gold, extensive coalifields, almost every variety of iron ore, as well as immense quantities of iron sand, which abounds on the sea coast, and some silver, tin, copper, and other useful metals and minerals.

COMMERCE.—The commerce of New Zealand is mainly carried on with the **United Kingdom** and other **Australasian Colonies** the trade with foreign countries, chiefly the *United States* and *China*, is very small. As in the other Australasian colonies, the volume of trade in proportion to the population is very great, but the exports are more largely in excess of the imports in New Zealand than in any other colony. Total value in 1890—exports, 9[‡] millions sterling ; imports, 6[‡] millions.³

and two-thirds of the exports go to, Great Britain, the annual value of the trade between the colony and the mother country being now considerably over 10 millions sterling.

^{1.} About 40,000 of the Maoris dwell in the North Island. Less than 2,000 are found in the South Island, about 160 in Stewart Island, and about the same number in the Chatham Islands. 2. Fully two-thirds of the imports are from,

The chief exports, in order of value, are wool, grain and flour, gold, frozen meat, kauri gum, phormium or New Zealand flax, butter and cheese, hides, skins and leather, timber, tallow, preserved meat, live stock, bacon, and hams.

The chief imports, also in order of value, are clothing and clothing materials; iron and steel goods and machinery; tea and sugar; spirits, wines, and beer; paper, books and stationery; oils and coal; fruit, &c.

Ports.—The principal ports for vessels entering and clearing for the United Kingdom are **Auckland** and **Wellington** in the North Island, and **Port Lyttel-ton** for *Christchurch*, and **Port Chalmers** for *Dunedin*, in the South Island.

Communications.—In addition to about 2,000 miles of railways, there is an extensive coaching system between the railway termini and other important centres, and constant communication by steamers between all the principal ports in the colony, and also with the Australian colonies, England, and America.

GOVERNMENT.—The general government consists of a **Gover**nor appointed by the Crown, a **Ministry** who form the executive, and a **Parliament** of two Chambers.

The **Revenue** for 1890 amounted to 44 millions sterling, and the **Expenditure** to 4 millions, while the **Public Debt** amounted to nearly 39 millions sterling, or £62 per head of the population.

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Elementary education is free, secular, and compulsory. The University of New Zealand has power to confer degrees, but, like the London University, it is solely an examining body. To it are affiliated the Otago University at Dunedin, the Canterbury College at Christchurch, and the University College at Auckland. There is no State Church, and no State aid is given to any form of religion.

DIVISIONS.—Up to the year 1876, New Zealand was divided into **nine provinces**—four in the North Island and five in the South Island—but in that year the provincial governments were abolished, and the colony was then divided into **Counties**. The provincial divisions are now termed **Provincial Districts**.

The Four Provincial Districts in the North Island are Auckland, in the north; Taranaki, in the west; Hawke's Bay, in the east; and Wellington, in the south.

The Five Provincial Districts in the South Island are Nelson and Marlborough, in the north; Westland, in the west; Canterbury, in the east; and Otago, in the south.

Counties.—These Provincial Districts are, for purposes of local government, divided into Counties, which, in 1876, were 63 in number—32 in the North Island, 30 in the South Island, and 1 in Stewart Island. The number of Counties has since been increased to 78 by the subdivision of some of the larger counties.

TOWNS.—All the chief towns of New Zealand are on or near the coast, and although two-fifths of the people live in towns, there is no such concentration in one large town as in Victoria, where onehalf the people live in Melbourne, or as in New South Wales, where two-fifths of the population reside in Sydney. Recent returns show a large increase in the town population, but even yet there are only four towns with over 10,000 inhabitants, namely, Auckland and Wellington, in the North Island, and Dunedin and Christchurch, in the South Island.

WELLINGTON (30), the capital of the colony and the seat of government, stands on the shores of a splendid natural harbour-Port Nicholson-on the and 1,400 miles east of Melbourne. Napier (9), on Hawke Bay, is the chief port on the east coast of the North Island. AUCKLAND (46), the largest city in the North Island, and formerly the capital of the colony, is still the leading seaport. The "Corinth of the South Pacific," as Auckland is called, is picturesquely situated on the eastern side of a narrow isthmus, about 6 miles in width, and its harbour, which opens out into the beautiful Gulf of Hauraki, has sufficient depth of water for the largest ocean steamers.

In the South Island, by far the largest towns are Dunedin and Christchurch. **DUNEDIN** (48), the "Edinburgh of New Zealand," was founded by members of the Free Church of Scotland in 1848, but did not make any great progress until the discovery of the rich goldfields in the Otago district attracted thousands of diggers, and now the city is perhaps the most important commercial centre in the colony. It stands on the shores of a fine bay-Otago Harbour-about 9 miles above its outport, Port Chalmers, at the entrance to the same inlet. CHRISTCHURCH (40), the chief city of the provincial district of Canterbury, is "eminently English in its appearance, architecture, and surroundings." It stands on the banks of the Avon, about 6 miles from the port of Lyttelton (4), with which it is connected by a railway tunnelled through the hills. Inver-cargill, about 160 miles south-west of Dunedin, is the chief town in South Otago. It is situated on an estuary, 17 miles north of its outport, Campbelltown, on Bluff Harbour. Oamaru (5) and Timaru (4) are two important ports on the east coast, between Dunedin and Christchurch. Blenheim (3), Picton, and Nelson (11) are the principal towns in the northern part of the South Island. Hokitika (3), the capital of Westland, Greymouth, and West**port** (3) are on the western side of the island.¹

QUESTIONS ON NEW ZEALAND.

GUESTITUNES UNI
Give a brief general description of New Zealand, indicating its position and extent.
Description of New Zealand, annuals.
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10. When did the British colonization of the islands commence? 11. What is the present population of the

What is the present represent reporting to a set of the people in New Zealand?
 With what countries is the foreign trade of the colony mainly carried on?
 Name the chief ports.
 What is the form of government? How is the colony divided?

The colory divided? In or government i now so the colory divided? In Name the four largest towns in New Zea-land, and give brief descriptions of each of them. 77. Where are Genaru, Timeru, Blenheim, 78. Where are Genaru, Timeru, Blenheim, 79. Where are Genaru, Timeru, Stephen, Stephen, Stephen, Stephen, Hokitka, Greymouth, Westport, and Napier?

POLYNESIA.

POLYNESIA, the region of many islands (from the Greek polys, many, and nesos, an island), is the general name given to the islands in the Pacific. In its widest signification,² it embraces the whole of

generally used to denote the British possessions to the south-east of Asia, and thus includes not only Australia and Tamania, but also New Zea-land, Fiji, and British New Guinea. New Zea-land, at herefore been described under Austral-othe jakand of that name, and seeing that the other bland of that name, and seeing that the New Caledonia and theor from Australia by New Caledonia and theor from Australia by Colonis are more conveniently dealls with under Meiaresia, a subdivision of Polynesia, to which they segmentically bland. they geographically belong.

^{1.} Hokitika owes its rise to the discovery of productive goldfields in the vicinity in 1863. Its harbour, hough greatly improved, is not so good as that of Greymouth, or that of Westport. Westport is by far the best port on the west coast, and extensive harbour works are in pro-gress. The breakwaters and training walls at Bots, and Savetra and training walls at Greymouth are also being completed, so that the port will be available at all times.
Both New Zealand and New Guinea are true Polynesian islands, but the former forms an integral part of Australasia, a term which is now integral part of Australasia, a term which is now integral part of Australasia.

POLYNESIA.

the **Pacific islands** to the east and north of Australia, with the exception of the East Indian Islands to the west of New Guinea.

Most of the smaller islands and island groups of the Pacific are either of coral formation or of volcanic origin, and many of them are partly *coral* and partly *volcanic*.

The coral islands are by far the most numerous. They consist, with few exceptions, of low reefs, raised only a few feet above the level of the sea, and in many cases hardly on a higher level than that reached by the flood tide. They owe their formation to the labours of the *coral insect*, a species of zoophyte, which builds up to the level of the ocean the stony matter formed by its own secretions. When once the surface of the sea is reached, the coral spreads laterally, but the labours of this most wonderful of Nature's architects are no longer continued in a vertical direction, for water is necessary to its existence. It is found that the coral insect cannot exist at a greater depth than from 20 to 30 fathoms, so that the numerous coral reefs of the Pacific Ocean and other seas are based upon submarine rocks.

Most of the coral islands are semicircular in shape, with a lagoon of still water enclosed between the inner curve of the semicircle and the reef which connects its extremities. A few of them form complete circles with enclosed lagoons. One or more openings invariably occur in the reef, through which vessels can enter the lagoon, and ride in safety, while storms rage in the outer occan.

The volcanic islands of Polynesia are not so numerous as the true coral islands, but many of them are of much greater extent, and also, of course, much loftier, rising in many cases to a height of several thousand feet above the level of the sea. Many of these volcanic islands are surrounded by coral reefs, which render the approach to them difficult and often dangerous.

The climate of all the true oceanic islands is one of the most delightful in the world. The heat of the Torrid Zone is here tempered by the influence of the vast surrounding ocean, and the temperature undergoes little variation throughout the year, and an almost uniform serenity of atmosphere prevails.

This vast island-world possesses some **productions** that are peculiar to itself, the most important of them being the bread-fruit tree, which yields the "staff of life" to the natives. The banana, cocca-nut, yam, taro, sweet potato, and arrowroot are common to these islands and to those of the Indian Seas. The sugar-cane, vine, orange, and other fruits of warm latitudes all flourish, and the cultivation of cotton, tobacco, and other commercial products could be immensely extended. None of the larger animals are found in the smaller islands, with the exception of the pig and other domestic animals introduced by Europeans. But the region is wonderfully rich in birds and insects. Many of the birds are gorgeously coloured—the marvellously exquisite birds-of-paradise are probably the most beautiful of all birds.

DIVISIONS.—The Pacific Islands, generally included under the term Polynesia, may be subdivided into three great groups— Melanesia, Micronesia, and Polynesia Proper—according to the race of people inhabiting them.

Except along the coasts of the larger and in some of the smaller islands, where they have been brought under the political or religious influence of Europeans, the *Micronesians* are savages, almost constantly at war, and inveterate cannibals. The *Micronesians*, on the other hand, are "the most mildly disposed of all the islanders of the globe," while the *Mahoris*, or brown Polynesians, are a fine race, extremely handsome, and physically, if not mentally, equal to the average European. Christianity has long since taken a firm hold in many of the islands, and the natives are in an advanced state of civilization, but their numbers are diminishing so rapidly that their total extinction as a pure race can only be a question of time.

MELANESIA.

The Melanesian' Islands and island-groups extend from New Guines on the west to the Fiji Islands on the east, and include New Guines, with its surrounding islands, the Bismarck Archipelago, the Solomon Islands, the Santa Cruz Islands, the New Hebrides, New Caledonia, the Loyalty Islands, and the Fiji Islands.

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NEW GUINEA² lies to the north of Australia, between the East Indian Seas on the west and the Pacific on the east, while its southern shores are washed by the Arafura Sea, Torres Strait—the narrowest part of which is only 90 miles in width—and the Coral Sea.

According to the most recent surveys, this vast island—the largest in the world next to Australia and Greenland—has an extreme length from northwest to south-east of about 1,550 miles, and a breadth varying, in the middle portion, from 200 to 400 miles, and a total area of over 300,000 square miles. But the population, at the outside, is not more than 24 millions.

In shape, New Guinea is most irregular, and its south-eastern and northwestern extremities are long, narrow peninsulas. To the east of Torres Strait, the coast forms a deep bight, called the **Gulf of Papua** or the Great Bight of New Guinea; thence it trends south-east nearly to the 151st meridian. To the west of Torres Strait, the coast trends generally north-west, unbroken by any considerable openings. The north-western peninsula is, however, deeply indented, and is almost cut in two by **McCluer Inlet**. On the northern coast is the vast inlet of **Geelvink Bay**, which lies between the north-western peninsula and the main portion of the island. **Astrolabe Bay** and **Huon Gulf** are smaller openings on the east coast.

Both the northern and south-eastern coasts are bold and rocky, with lofty mountains in the background. The highest mountains in the island are the **Owen Stanley Range**, in the south-east, in which *Mount Victoria* attains a height of 13,121 feet; the **Charles Louis Mountains**, in the north-west, one peak in which is estimated to be 16,730 feet above the sea; and the much loftier **Finisterre Mountains**, in Kaiser Wilhelm's Land, which attain in *Mount Schopenhauer*, or Disraeli, an elevation of upwards of 20,000 feet.

In an island with such an excessively humid climate as New Guinea, deluged, as it is, by monsoon rains for half the year, the rivers are extremely numerous, and two of them have been ascended for hundreds of miles inland. These are the **Fly River**, which forms a vast delta on the western side of the Gulf of Papua, and the **Kaiserin Augusta**, which debouches on the northern coast.

The climate of New Guinea contrasts strongly with that of Australia. In the dry season it is comparatively healthy, but in the wet season Europeans are prostrated by fever.

The natural productions are as yet imperfectly known, as, with the exception of comparatively small patches cleared by the natives, the whole country is overgrown with dense forests. The natives cultivate, with more or less success, rice, maize, yams, cocca-nuts, sago, sugar-cane, bananas, and other tropical productions.

The inhabitants of New Guinea are known as *Papuans*, a name derived from a Malay word *papticah*, meaning "woolly-haired," or "frizzled," which accurately describes the huge frizzled-out mop of hair that constitutes the pride and glory of the Papuan.

L. Melanesia means "the islands of the 2 The name New Guinea was given to the blacks" (from the Greek, meias, black, and mesos, issued participation on the coast in 1546.

MELANESIA.

The western half of New Guinea is claimed by Holland ; the north-eastern portion, together with the Bismarck Archipelago, forms a German Protectorate : while the south-eastern portion is a British Crown Colony.

DUTCH NEW GUINEA includes the whole of the island to the west of the 141st meridian E. It has an area of about 150,000 square miles, and a population of perhaps a million.

GERMAN NEW GUINEA.—The Imperial Protectorate of GERMAN NEW GUINEA includes the north-eastern division of the island, now called Kaiser Wilhelm's Land, 1 and extends over the Bismarck Archipelago, and the northern Solomon Islands.

BRITISH NEW GUINEA, which includes the south-eastern part of the island, is a Crown Colony. It has an area of 90,000 square miles, and a population of perhaps half a million. The colony is governed by an Administrator, aided by a nominated Legislative Council.² The seat of government and the chief trad-ing centre is **Port Moresby**, a small settlement conveniently situated on the shores of a land-locked harbour on the eastern side of the Gulf of Papua.

PAPUAN ISLANDS.—The Papuan Islands include all those islands off the coasts of New Guinea which belong to the same geographical area as the main island.

The north-western peninsula is fringed by a large number of islands, some of them over 100 miles in length. The south-eastern peninsula is also fringed by a number of islands, but these are smaller in size than the north-western islands, and more mountainous. These include the D'Entrecasteaux Islands and the Louisiade Archipelago, both of which form part of the colony of British New Guinea. Murray Island, at the eastern entrance to Torres Strait, is now annexed to the colony of Queensland.

THE BISMARCK ARCHIPELAGO, which includes the New Britain Group and the Admiralty Islands, forms part of the German Protectorate of New Guinea.

The aggregate area of these islands is about 20,000 square miles ; the inhabitants may number about a quarter of a million. The German Administrator resides at Herbertshohe, in New Britain or New Pomerania.

THE SOLOMON ISLANDS.3-About 500 miles to the eastward of New Guinea is a large group of islands known as the Solomon Islands.

This group extends for 700 miles in a north-west and south-east direction. and consists of a chain of islands-the four northern islands-Bougainville. Choiseul, Ysabel, and Malayta, being separated by channels varying in width from 15 to 50 miles from the southern chain, which includes three large islands-New Georgia, Guadalcanar, and San Christoval-and several smaller islands and islets. The group has a total area of perhaps 15,000 square miles, or considerably more than twice as large as Wales, while the savage Melanesian inhabitants may number 150,000.

3. The Solomon Islands were first discovered by a Spanish navigator, Mendaña, in 1668. He gave them the name of the Islands of Solomon, in order that his countrymen, supposing them to be the islands whence King Solomon obtained his gold, might be induced to colonise them.

^{1.} Kaiser Wilhelm's Land was declared a Ger-

Raiser Willemin statum was declared a Ger-man Protectorate in 1884.
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 The territory was first taken over, in 1884.
 The territory was first taken over, in 1884.

All the islands are mountainous and generally volcanic, and most of them are girdled by coral reefs. They are, for the most part, clothed from coast to summit with the densest tropical forest, in which the immense ficus trees are often conspicuous objects. In the neighbourhood of native villages, the beach is fringed with cocos-nut palms.

By an arrangement between Great Britain and Germany, the group has been divided, the northern islands remaining within the German y dee finance, and the southern islands within the British sphere. In 1886, Germany defi-nitely annexed Bougainville, Choiseul, and Ysabel, the three largest islands in the group, and attached them to her New Guinea Protectorate.

THE SANTA ORUZ ISLANDS and the NEW HEBRIDES form a long chain of islands between the Solomon Islands and New Caledonia.

The **Santa Cruz Islands**, though independent, are within the British sphere of influence, while the New Hebrides are under the joint protection of France and England.

The New Hebrides and the larger islands of the Santa Cruz group are of volcanic origin, and some of the volcances are still active, and there are boiling springs on one of the Banks' Islands. The appearance of almost all the islands is very beautiful—steep hills, covered with fine forest trees, rising abruptly from the sea, while groves of cocca-nut palms surround the villages.

NEW CALEDONIA.-The island of New Caledonia, the most southerly of the Melanesian islands, lying about 800 miles east of Australia and nearly 1,000 miles to the north of New Zealand, is a French penal colony.

With its dependencies—the Isle of Pines and the Loyalty Islands—the colony has an area of about 7,600 square miles, and a population of over 60,000, twothirds of whom are natives, the rest are French convicts, soldiers, and colonists. **NOUMEA** (5), the capital, is situated on a fine harbour on the south-western coast. Foundries and furnaces for the treatment of the nickel ore, now so extensively mined in the island, are being erected near the town.

THE FIJI ISLANDS.—The charming archipelago of Fiji, or more properly Viti, embraces in all 255 islands and islets, scattered over an ocean area of 300 miles from west to east, and 200 miles from north to south, between the parallels of 15° and 28° S. latitude. and about 1,250 miles north of Auckland, 1,860 miles north-east of Sydney, and nearly 5,000 miles south-west of San Francisco.

Two of the islands are of considerable size-the largest, Viti Levu (4,112 square miles), being considerably larger than Cyprus, while the second largest, Vanua Levu (2,432 square miles), is about three times the size of Mauritius. The other islands range from an area of 217 square miles to mere rocks. The total area of the inhabited islands is 7,740 square miles, or slightly larger than that of Wales, and the population, including the 2,300 inhabitants of Botumah, a small island annexed to the colony in 1880, amounts to about 125,000, of whom 110,000 are native Fijians,² 6,000 Indian and 2,300 Polynesian immigrants, 2,000 Europeans, and nearly 1,000 half-castes.

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1. Erromange, the most northerly of the southern portion of the New Hebrides group, is memorable as the place where the courageous and devoted missionary, John Williams, was	l
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1. Erromange, the most northerly of the ligent of all the Melanesian peoples, have, outhern portion of the New Hebrides group, is mainly as the result of the labours of the Web-emorshie as the place where the courageous id devoted missionary, John Williams, was illed by the savages. 2. The Fijians, who are by far the most intel-

All the Fijian Islands are of volcanic origin, and are therefore mountainous, some peaks in Vanua Levu rising to about 5,000 feet above the sea level; the smaller as well as the larger islands are abundantly watered by numerous since as whit as the larger islands are abundantly watered by numerous rivers—through almost every valley flows a running stream, from which an ample supply of water for irrigation and other purposes can be obtained all the year round. Many of the rivers in the two larger islands are even navi-gable for cances and good-sized boats. The longest river—the Rewa Rewa, in Viti Levu—is navigable for 50 miles from its mouth. Every island in the group is almost encircled by a barrier reef, which forms an admirable breakwater, and, once through the opening, vessels ride at anchor in perfect safety.

The climate, though hot, is remarkably healthy, and the larger and some of the smaller islands afford a delightful tropical residence. Hundreds of English people have lived continuously in Fiji for years in the enjoyment of excellent health.1

The soil is everywhere fertile, and there is hardly any land that is not capable of being profitably cultivated. Many tropical products, such as bananas. maize, cotion, sugar, tea, coffee, yams, pine-upples, &c., are already grown to some extent; the coco-nut paim plantations afford a certain income, while the numerous forests contain a great number of valuable timber trees.

The geographical position of these islands, relative to the Australasian colonies and the Pacific Coast of America, their multifarious resources, and fine harbours, so easily rendered impregnable, combine to make Fiji one of the most valuable and important of the smaller British possessions.

The Fiji Islands form a British Crown Colony under a Governor, appointed by the Home Government, assisted by an Executive and a Legislative Council."

Fiji possesses but two towns, namely, SUVA, the present capital. on the island of Viti Levu, and Levuka, the former capital, on the island of Ovalau.

: With the Fijian group, the Melanesian islands end-the Tonga Islands and other archipelagoes to the east and north-east are included in Polynesia Proper, while the innumerable little volcanic islands and coral atolls that extend between Fiji and the Philippines form the Micronesian division of the Pacific islands.

MICRONESIA.

MICRONESIA^{*} is the general name given to the countless multitude of little islands that dot the surface of the Western Pacific, to the north of the Melanesian islands, and extend in a vast curve from the Philippines on the west to the Fiji Islands on the east

These islands, the largest of which—Guam, one of the Ladrone Islands—has an area of only 200 square miles, are grouped in three great archipelagoes :—a northern group including the Ladrones or Marianne Islands, and the Bonin Islands; a western division embracing the large group of the Caroline Islands; and an eastern group, which includes the Marshall Islands to the north of, the Gilbert Islands under, and the Ellice Islands to the south of, the Equator.

and the exports to over £350,000. The direct trade with Great Britain is small-most of the imports from, and exports to, Great Britain passing through Australian and New Zealand

ports. 3. Micronesia means "small islands" (from the Greek mikros, small, and nesos, an island).

The mean annual rainfall in Viti Levu is over 100 inches; and the absolute minimum tem-perature at Sura, the capital, was, in 1866, 65° F., and the absolute maximum 31° F.
 The Revenue is a Litle over, and the Expen-diture under \$50,000, and there is a small Public Debt. The imports amount to about \$20,000,

None of the Micronesian islands are independent—the Bonin Islands belong to Japan; the Ladrones, Carolines, and the Pelew chain belong to Spain; the Marshall and Gilbert Archipelagoes have been annexed by Germany; while the Ellice Islands are within the British sphere of influence.

The Bonin and the Ladrone' Islands are the most northerly of the Micronesian archipelagoes. They extend in a long chain between the Caroline Islands and Japan, and are almost exclusively of volcanic origin.

The Pelew Islands, which lie about 600 miles east of Mindanao, the most southerly of the Philippines, form the most westerly of all the Micronesian archipelagoes.

The **Garoline Islands** are so widely scattered that they stretch from the Pelew Islands to the Marshall Archipelago—a distance of 2,000 miles—and so small that the 500 islands and islets included in the group cover an area of less than 500 square miles, while the population does not exceed 30,000.

The Marshall Islands, which were annexed by Germany in 1885, are the most northerly of the three eastern archipelagoes of Micronesia. They have an aggregate area of about 150 square miles, and a population of perhaps 10,000.

The **Gilbert Islands**, an equatorial group of 18 little atolls, also belong to Germany. The aggregate area is scarcely 150 square miles, but the population amounts to between 40,000 and 50,000, an average of about 300 per square mile.

The Ellice Islands, which lie midway between Fiji and the Gilbert archipelago, are within the British sphere of influence. The eight islands of this group are purely coralline. They have an area of about 170 square miles.

POLYNESIA.

POLYNESIA, in the restricted sense of the term, that is, as applied to the third great division of the Pacific islands, embraces numerous charming archipelagoes and a vast number of scattered islets in the Eastern Pacific.

These islands and island groups, all of which, with very few exceptions, lie to the eastward of the 180th meridian, are inhabited by people of the same race—the Mahoris or brown Polynesians—speaking dialects of the same language, and extend over a tract of sea three times the size of Europe; but, though so numerous, they are so small that their combined area would hardly equal that of one of the smallest countries of Europe. Unhappily, the natives, who, as a rule, are tall and extremely handsome—being, physically, one of the finest races on the globe—have, since the time when Europeans first became familiar with them, ^a rapidly decreased in numbers, and "although **Ohristianity** has taken a firm hold in many of the islands, the white traders do more harm than the missionaries can do good," and the people are still diminishing, and seem doomed to disappear before "the relentless march of our too imperfect civilization."

Of the many archipelagoes of Polynesia Proper, the most important are the Sandwich Islands, to the north of the Equator, and the Tonga, Samoa, Hervey, Society, and Marquesas Islands, and the Low Archipelago, to the south of the Equator. **THE SANDWICH ISLANDS.**—HAWAII, or the Sandwich Islands, is, next to New Zealand, the most extensive of all the true Polynesian archipelagoes, and the position of the group—midway between the Old and the New Worlds—is one of great commercial importance.

Hawaii, the largest, and also the most southerly, of the eight inhabited islands, has an area of 4,210 square miles, and the entire group covers an area of about 6,700 square miles, but the population scarcely exceeds 80,000, only one-half of whom are *natives*, the rest being *Chinese*, *Portuguese*, and other foreigners and half-castes. HONOLULU (20), situated on an excellent harbour on the south coast of the island of Oahu, is the capital and largest town.

All the islands are volcanic, and Hawaii itself contains the loftiest mountnins and most powerful volcances in all Polynesia. The huge Mauna Kea, or White Mountain, 13,954 feet in height, and the once dreaded Mauna Hulaiai, 11,020 feet, now slumber; but the gigantic Mauna Loa, or Grand Mountain, 13,760 feet, awakes at uncertain intervals into destructive activity, while the awe-inspiring crater of Kilauca, a veritable lake of fire, on the eastern flank of the Grand Mountain, is in a state of constant activity and occasionally overflows. Enormous floods of molten lava then roll down the slopes, and some of the streams have burned their way as far as the harbour of Hilo on the one side, and on the other to the Bay of Kealakekua, the scene of the murder of Captain Cook, the famous navigator, who discovered these islands in 1778.

The **Phoenix**, **Union** or Tokelau, and **Manihiki Islands**, together with two isolated islets—**Malden** and **Starbuck**—all belong to Great Britain, with the exception of two islands in the Phœnix group and two of the Union Islands which are occupied by the Americans.

THE MARQUESAS.—The mountainous Marquesas Islands, which belong to France, are of volcanic origin, and, like all the volcanic islands of Polynesia, are picturesque and fertile.

SOUTHERN POLYNESIA.—Under this term we may include the numerous groups of coral and volcanic islands that extend for 3,000 miles to the east of the Fijian Archipelago. The principal groups, from west to east, are the Tonga or Friendly Islands, the Samoa or Navigator Islands, Cook or Hervey Islands, the Society Islands, Tubuai or Austral Islands, and the Low Archipelago. The isolated Pitcairn, Easter, and other islands are still further east.

TONGA, a Polynesian word for "islands," is the native name of three groups of volcanic and coral islands about 400 miles east of Fiji. They were discovered by Tasman in 1643, and visited by Cook in 1777, by whom they were called the "Friendly Islands."

Tonga is an **independent state**, under a native king, and there is also a Legislative Assembly, composed of nobles, nominated by the king, and representatives, elected by the people. **Nukualofa**, on Tongatabu, is the capital and chief port.

SAMOA. -- The Samoa or Navigator Islands, a group of 14 volcanic islands. are situated about 850 miles north-east of the Tonga Islands.¹

The largest of these enchanting islands are Savaii," Upolu, and Tutuila. Apia, on the island of Upolu, is the centre of trade, which is mainly in the hands of German merchants. The United States have a coaling station at Pango-Pango, on the island of Tutuila.

The Cook Archipelago, so named in honour of its discoverer, the famous Captain Cook, consists of a group of nine islands, situated about 700 miles south-east of Samoa.³ They now form a British Protectorate.

The Society Islands, the most important group in Southern Polynesia, with the Low Archipelago to the east and the Austral Isles to the south, and other islands and island-groups in this part of the Pacific, belong to France, and are officially known as the French Establishments in Oceania.

The Society Islands form a group of eleven volcanic islands, the largest of which is the double island of Tahiti, one of the most beautiful and picturesque islands in the world. Papeete, the capital of Tahiti, is the centre of French trade and influence in Southern Polynesia.

The Austral Isles are a group of volcanic islands a few hundred miles south of Tahiti. About 360 miles south of this group is another volcanic island, Oparo, or Rapa, which also belongs to France. The Low Archipelago consists of a cluster of about 80 atolls, extending for 1,550 miles to the east and southeast of Tahiti. 4 The Gambier Islands are a group of five volcanic islands to the south-east of the Low Archipelago.

Between the Gambier Islands and the South American coast a distance of 4,000 miles, there are only a few solitary islets, two of which, however, possess special interest—Pitcairn Island, as the refuge of the mutineers of the Bounty, and Easter Island, remarkable for its wonderful ruins of massive stone houses, walls, terraces, and colossal stone images.

Pitcairn Island is an isolated mountainous island, about 2 miles long and three-quarters of a mile wide, with a fine climate, a fertile volcanic soil, covered with palms and fruit trees. It was in 1790 that the mutineers of the Bounty settled here. Their descendants were removed first to Tahiti and then back again to their island, only to be again removed, in 1856, to Norfolk Island, but two years later many of them returned to their island home. They have since increased to about 200, and there is probably no healthier, happier, or more contented and comfortable a community in the world than the isolated islanders of Pitcairn. There are some remarkable remains of a settled prehistoric people in Pitcairn Island, but the most wonderful of all the evidences

^{1.} Some years ago, Germany attempted to annex these islands, but the United States and England intervened. At a conference on Samoan affairs, held at Berlin in 1888, the three powers agreed to recognize the independence of the native Govern-ment, and to guarantee the neutrality of the islands.

islands. 2. Savail disputes with Hawaii the honour of being the original home of the Polynesian race, and of being the traditional Hawaiit whence the ancestors of the Maoris of New Zealand migrated to the great southern islands. Both names - Savail and Hawaii - would be pro-

nounced Hawalki by a Maori, but the word may only have a general meaning, like the word "home" in Kinglish. A. The largest island is the well-known Rar-tonga, the scene of the missionary labours of John Williams, the apostle of the Pacific, and one of the pioneers of missionary enterprise in the fourth Sea Islands. 4. The Porpresian name- fragments or "distant is the mouth of the scene of the position is a state of the scene of the scene of the familier lahands in the south each state most easterly of all the island-groups in the Pacific.

of a mighty past in these distant and solitary islands, are the stone houses and gigantic statues on Easter Island, a storm-swept rock, 11 miles long and 4 miles wide, with but little vegetation and no fresh water, except a few springs and pools. In 1860, the island, which has been annexed by Chili, was said to contain a thousand inhabitants; now there are scarcely a tenth of the number. They know nothing of the origin of the 200 statues or idols-huge stone images, 15 to 37 feet in height, cut out of the trachytic lava, many of them still standing, others prostrate and mutilated on the enormous stone platforms on which they stood. These platforms are found on nearly every headland, while, at the south-west corner of the island, are about a hundred massive stone houses with walls 5 feet thick, and doorways facing the sea. The sea-cliffs near the houses have also been sculptured into fantastic shapes or strange faces. Altogether these antiquities of Easter Island are the most mysterious and inexplicable of all the many remains of some pre-historic people that once dwelt in the Polynesian archipelagoes, and perhaps regarded this far distant island as the sanctuary of their gods.

ANTARCTICA.

Several tracts of land have been sighted within the Antarctic Circle, and these, no doubt, belong to, or form part of, an immense circumpolar continent, probably larger than Australia, to which the name Antarctica has been given.

The principal known points are Graham Land, Louis Philippe Land, and Alexander I. Land, to the south of Cape Horn ; Enderby Island, about 2,800 miles south of Madagascar : the irregular coasts of Sabrina Land, Clarie Land, and Adelle Land, to the south of Australia; and the extensive Victoria Land, almost due south of New Zealand, discovered by Sir James Ross in 1841. The principal landmark on this dreary and most inhospitable coast is a range of mountains, running south and culminating in Mount Erebus, an active volcano, 12,367 feet in height, and Mount Terror, an extinct volcano, 10,889 feet above the sea-level.¹

QUESTIONS ON POLYNESIA.

Write out a general description of Polynesia, and point out the difference between the oural and the volcanic islands of the Pacific.
 Name the three great divisions of Polynesia
 What islands are included in Melanesia?
 What islands are included in Melanesia?
 Where in New Guinea, and how is it divided?
 Describe the natural features and produc-tions of New Guinea.
 Give some particulars respecting each of the three divisions of New Guinea.
 Name some of the Papuan Islands. Which New Guines?
 Where is the Bismarck Archipelago? To

Guinas? The piece and only of a piece and the second secon the colony?

13. What islands are included in Micronesia?

Which of these islands belong to Spain f-Which to Germany and Great Britain ?
 Which division of the Pacific islands is em-

braced in Polynesia Proper? 16. What do you know of the native inhabitants of these charming islands?

17. Point out the Sandwich Islands on the map and any what you know of them. 18. What islands to the south of the Sandwich

Islands belong to Great Dritain? 19. To what nation do the Marquesas belong? 20. Name the principal islands in Southern

20. Vince the part of Tonga and Samos 7 21. Where is the Cook Archipelago? 23. Where is the Cook Archipelago? 23. Whet other islands in Polymesia, besides: the Marquesas, belong to Prance 7 24. Give a short account of Pitcairn and Easter

Islands.

25. What portions of Antarctica have been righted? Which of these were discovered by Sir-James Ross?

1. For a short account of the principal explora- | Olass-Book of Modern Geography (London: George tions in the Antarctic Seas, see the Advanced | Philip & Son).

*** Names of Tribes, Ancient Names, Geographical Terms, Treaties, Battlefields, &c., are in italics.

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ETYMOLOGY OF GEOGRAPHICAL NAMES.

ABBREVIATIONS.

A.S. = Anglo-Saxon, Annam. - Annamese, Arab. - Arabic, Arm. - Barmoric, Burm. - Burmese, Oeit. - Celtia, Chin. - Chinese, Dan. - Danish, Eng. - English, Er. - Ere Er. - Erse. Finn. - Finnish.

Fr. - French. Gael. - Gaelic. Ger. - German. Gr. - Greek. Haw. — Hawaiian. Hebr. — Hebrew. Hind. — Hindustani. Ice. — Icelandic. Ind. — Indian (South America). Ital. = Italian.

IATIONS. Jap. – Japanese. Iat. – Iatin. Mag. – Magyar. Mong. – Mongolian. Norm. – Norman. Norw. – Norwsgian. Pers. – Persian. Pot. – Polish. Pot. – Portuguese. Roum. – Roumanian.

Russ. — Russian. Sans. — Sanskrit. Scand. — Scandinavian. Sjam. — Sjameşe. Slav. - Slavonic. Siavonic, Span. = Spanish. Swed. = Swedish. Tart. = Tartar. Teut. = Teutonic. Turk. = Turkish.

A (Swed.-A.-S. eá), river or stream. Ab (Pers.), water.

Abad (Hind., Pers.), city or dwelling. Abbas (Pers.), father.

Aber (Celt.), a confinence or mouth of a river. [Synonymous with inver]. Ach (Ger.), stream or water. Ada, pl. adalar (Turk.), island, islands. Add (Ger.), nobility or noble.

- Adrar (Berber), mountain. Agh (Er.), auch (Gael.), a field.
- Agua (Span.), water, from the Latin aqua.
- Aguille (Fr.), needle, generic name applied to sharp-pointed mountain peaks.
- Ain (Arab.), well, fountain, source, or spring.

- Ak (Turk.), white. Ak (Turk.), pass or defile. Akaba (Arab.), pass or defile. Akb, alp (Celt., cf. Latin, albus, white) applied to lofty white (snowcovered) mountains, chalk cliffs, &c. Albufera (Span.), lagoon.

All, al-ian (Gael.), white, white water.

Allt (Welsh), steep road or path.

Also (Magyar), under, inferior.

Alt (Ger.), old.

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Alto, pl. altos (Span.), summit, peak. Altura (Span., Ital.), height, altitude. Am (Ger.), on the —.

An (Ger.) near the – Angra (Port.), bay.

- Ano (Gr.), superior, above. Antiguo (Span.), ancient.
- Ar (Welsh garw, violent, cf. Sans. ara, swift), a component of many rivernames.
- Ar (Welsh), on, upon.
- Aral (Kirghiz), island.

Ard (Celt.), high. Arl (Ger.), eagle. Arroyo (Span.), stream. Ath (Er.), a ford. Ava (Slav.), river. Avon (Celt.), river, stream. Ba (Sudanese), river. Bab (Arab.), gate, eutrance. Bach (Ger.), brook, rivulet. Bach (Turk.), head or summit. Bach (Welsh), little. Bäck (Swed.), bæk (Norw.), stream, cf. beck and beek. Bad (Ger.), bath. Bahia (Port.), bay. Bania (FOTL.), Day. Bahr (Årab.), river, lake, or sea. Bajo (Span.), lower, under. Baka (Mong.), great. Bal, Bally (Cett.), village, town. Ban (Celt.), place. Ban (Celt.), white. Bar (Hind.), country. Bas (Fr. below under Bas (Fr.), below, under. Basar, bazar (Turk.), market. Batang (Mal.), river. Battle, bottle, buttel (Teut.), dwelling. Beau, bel (Fr.), beautiful. Bec (fr., cf. Eng., bill), beak, applied to headlands. Beck (Teut.), brook. Bedd (Welsh), grave. Bedw (Welsh), birch tree. Beek (Dutch), stream. Beer (Helter), stream. Beg (Colt.), little. Bela (Slav.), white. Bello, bella (Span, It, Port.), beautiful.

- Ben (Celt. and Er.), mountain, hill, headland, hilltop.

Bender (Pers.), port. Beni (Arab.), sons of ----, clansmen. Berg (Ger.), a hill or mountain. In England the form is borough. Berka (Arab.), freshwater lake. Beth (Hebr.), a house. Bettos (Mesh.), a holac. Bieltos (Welsh), village. Bieltos (Velsh), white. Bien (Annam.), lake, sea. Bihan (Arm., ef. Welsh bychan), little. Bilad (Arab.), country. Bir (Arab.), well or fountain. Blair (Celt)., a plain (battlefield). Blanc (Fr.), white. Bocca, bocche (Ital.), boca (Span.), mouth. Bocht (Dutch), bay. Boghas (Turk.), defile, strait. Bolchoi (Russ.), great. Borg (Dan.), castle. Borgo (Ital.), town. Borough (Teut.), a town or fortified place Bosch (Dutch), wood or forest. Boulak (Arab.), source. Brig (Scot.), bridge. Brücke (Ger.), bridge. Brunnen (Ger.), spring, well. Bryn (Welsh), hill. Bucht (Ger.), bught (Scand.), bay. Bueno, buena (Span.), good. Burg, burgh, bury (Teut.), originally meant a castle or fortified town. Burn (Eng.), a stream (other forms, bourn, bourne, &c.). By (Dan.), a dwelling. Cabo (Span., Port.), cape. Cader (Welsh), chair. Caer, car (Welsh), a fortified place. Cairn (Celt., modern Welsh, carnedd), a heap of stones placed over a grave, or as a memorial, on the summit of a hill or mountain. Cam (Celt.), crooked. Cap (Fr.), cape. Capel (Welsh), chapel. Car, see caer. Carrick (Celt.), crag. Caster, chester, cester (fr. Lat., castra), a camp. Cayo (Span.), island. Cefn (Celt.), a back, applied to mountain ridges. Cerro (Span.), mountain peak, hill. Chai (Turk.), river. Chan (Chin.), mountain. Château, Châtel (Fr.), a castle. Cheap, chipping (from A.-S. ceap), a price, and so applied to markettowns or places.

Cidade (Port.), a city. Cima (Span., Ital.), a peak. Ciudad (Span.), a city. Civita or citta (Ital., fr. the Lat. Civita or citta (Ital., ir. the Lat., civitas), a city. Claudd (Welsh), a wall. Clyd (Calt.), warm or sheltered. Clydh (Calt.), strong. Cod., good (Welsh), a wood. Cod (Fr.), colde (Ital.), a pass. Cold. (from the Lat., colonia), a colony. (Ger., köln). Combe (A.-S., from Welsh, cwm), a rounded valley or hollow. Cor, gor (Welsh), a choir. Cordillera (Span.), a mountain range, Costa (Span.), coast. Cot, cote (A.-S.), a cottage. Côte (Fr.), coast. Craig, carrick, crag (Celt.), a rock. Creek (from A.-S. crecca, a crock, cf. Welsh, crwg, a hook), original meaning, a bend, and so came to denote a small inlet or bay of the sea, a river or lake, and, in Australia, temporary streams. Croes, groes (Welsh), a cross. Cruz (Span.), a cross. Cumber (Span.), mountain peak. Crom (Welsh), a "hollow" on a hill side. Czerna, czerny (Slav.), black. Dagh, tagh (Turk.), a mountain or mountain range. Dahra (Arab.), north. Dal (Scand.), dol (Celt.), thal (Ger.), a plain or dale. Dam (Dutch), an embankment. Dar (Arab.), country. Daria (Pers.), river, sea. Davan (Turk.), pass. Deccan (Hind.), the south country. Den, dean, dene (Teut.), a wooded valley. Denghiz, deniz (Turk.), lake. Dent (Fr.), a tooth. Dera (Hind.), an encampment or dwelling. Derbend (Pers.), castle, town. Dere (Turk.), defile or pass. Dewi, ddewi (Welsh), David. Dhu (Gael.), du, ddu (Welsh), black. Didi (Georgian), great. Dinas (Welsh), a town. Diva (Hind.), island. Doab, dooab (Pers.), two rivers (cf. with Welsh, dwy avon, 'two rivers'), term applied to land between two rivers.

Dolina (Slav.), a valley.

Dolny (Pol.), under. Don (Celt.), a wave. Dong, dhang (Burm.), mountain. Dorf (Ger.), a village. Dour (Celt.), water. Dras (Arab.), link. Drasth (Welsh), the beach. Drom, drum (Celt.), a ridge. Dun, don (Celt.), a hill-fortress or hill. Dwr, dwfr (Welsh), water. Dyffryn (Welsh), a valley. Dysart (Celt., from the Lat., desertum), a hermitage, retreat. Dwala (Hind.), white. Diu (Hind.), an island. Ea, ey (Scand.), an island (Norw. and Dan. form, ö or oe). Eccles (Fr. église, Lat. ecclesia, Gr. ekklesia), a church. Eglwys (Welsh), a church. Eisen (Ger.), iron. El (Arab.), the (changes into ech, ed, en, er, es, et, and ez before corresponding consonants). Bif (Swed.), river. Elf (Swed.), river. Ennis (Erse), island (Welsh form, yuys) Erdö (Mag.), forest. Esgob (Welsh), bishop. Esk (Celt. uisge), water. Eski (Turk.), old. Ey (Scand.), island. Fach, fechan (Welsh), little. Fair, mair (Welsh), Mary. Falva, Falk (Mag.), a village. Feld (Gar.), a field, plain. Feld (Scand., field), a mountain. Fels (Gar.) rock Fels (Ger.), rock. Felsö (Mag.), upper. Ffynnon (Welsh), a well. Field (Dan., Norw., fjeld ; Swed., fjäll), mountain. Fiord (Norw., fjord ; Swed., fjärd), a navigable inlet. Firth (Celt.), a bay or estuary. Fleet (Scand.), a "flood," a small river or channel. Folk (A.-S.), people. Foo (Chin.), a town. (The 'foo' is only added to the names of the capitals of the 18 great provinces of China). Forêt (Fr.), a forest. Foss (Scand.), a waterfall. Frei (Ger.), free. Fuerie (Span.), strong. Fürst (Ger.), a prince. Ganga (Hind.), river. Garh, gurh (Hind.), a castle.

Garth (Scand.), a yard or enclosure. Garw (Celt.), rough. Gat, gate (Teut.), a passage or road. Gawa (Jap.), a river. Gebirge (Ger.), mountains. Gelli (Welsh), hazel. Gharbi (Arab.), west. Ghat, ghaut (Hind.), a stair, hence a landing-place or pass. Giri or ghiri (Hind.), mountain. Glen (Gael.), glyn (Welsh), a narrow valley. Goed, coed (Welsh), a wood. Gol (Mongol.), a river. Gora (Slav.), mountain or forest. Gorm (Gael.), blue. Gorod, grad, gratz (Slav.), an enclosure. a town. Gouba (Russ.), bay. Gran, grande (Span., Port., Ital.), great. Grand, grande (Fr.), great. Grätz, see gorod. Groote (Dutch), great. Gross (Ger.), great. Guad, guadi (Span. form of Arab., wady), a river. Gunong (Mal.), mountain. Gwy, see wy, Grown, gwen, wen (Welsh), white. Hafen (Ger.), havn (Dan.), harbour... Hafod (Welsh), a summer house. Hai (Chin.), sea. Hall (Teut.), a stone house. Ham (A.-S.), home. Hamm (Swed.), haven. Hammada (Arab.), rocky tableland. Hamun (Pers.), plain. Haus, hausen (fr. the Ger. haus), a house. Hegy (Mag.), mountain. Heim (Ger.), home. Heli (Welsh), salt. Hén (Welsh), old. Hia (Chin.), under. Hien (Chin.), town (capital of a canton or provincial division). Hikui (Jap.), lower. Himalaya (Hind.), abode of snow. Hinter (Ger.), behind (Hinterland, a term used in recent discussions to denote the land lying behind the coast strip). Hissar (Turk.), castle. Hithe (A.-S.), haven. Hjem (Norw. form of Germ. heim and . Eng. ham), home. Ho (Annam.), lake. Ho (Chin.), river. Hoang (Chin.), yellow. Hoch (Ger.), high. Hodna (Arab.), a plain.

Hock (Dutch), promontory. Höhe (Ger.), height. Holm (Scand.), "an island in a lake or river. Hott (Teut.), a wood. Hoo (Chin.), a lake. Hoofd (Dutch), a cape. Horn (Ger.), a peak. Howed (Norw.), head or cape. Hugel (Ger.), a hill. Huis (Dutch), huus (Dan.), a house. Hurst (A.-S.), a wood. Ieni (Turk.), new. Ike (Mong.), little. Ile, isle (Fr.), island. Ilha (Port.), island. Inch (Gael. form of Celt., ennis), an island. Ing (A.-S.), a patronymic or suffix, denoting son ; in the plural, a family or tribe. Innis (Celt.), an island. Insel (Ger.), island. Inver, inner (Celt.), the mouth of a river. Irwak (Turk.), a river. Is, isaf (Welsh), lower, lowest. Isla (Span.), island. Isola (Ital.), island. Jebel (Arab.), mountain. Jeni (Turk.), new. Jezirch (Arab.), island. Joki (Finn.), a river. Jökull (Ice.), snow or ice-capped mountain, glacier. Kaf or kef (Arab.), a peak. Kafir (Arab.), infidel, general name given to the Zulus and other Bantu tribes of South Africa. Kaia (Turk.), a rock. Kale (Turk.), castle. Kali (Mal.), river. Kamen (Slav.), a stone. Kami (Jap.), upper. Kami (Jap.), upper. Kand (Turk.), town. Kap (Ger.), cape. Kara (Turk.), black. Kasr, kesr (Arab.), a castle. Kata (Jap.), lake. Kato (Gr.), lower. Kava or gava (Jap.), river. Kawa (Jap.), see gawa. Kebir (Arab.), great. Ken (Jap.), department. Khöi (Samoyede), stone, mountain. Khrebet (Russian), chain of mountains. Kiang (Chin.), kang (Corean), river. Kill (Celt.), a church or chapel.

Kin, ken, can (Celt.), head. Kin (Chin.), town. Air (Chin.), town. Kio (Jap.), town. Kion (Chin.), gate, mouth. Kion (Chin.), gate, mouth. Kirk (Scand.), a church. Kis (Mag.), little. Kisi (Turk.), red. Kisi (Char.) little. Klein (Ger.), little. Knock (Celt.), a hill. Ko (Jap.), little. Ko (Siam.), island. Koh (Per.), mountain. Kol (Turk.), a lake. Not (Jurz.), a hake. Kon (Jap.), harbour. Kong (Chin.), river. Köping (Ger.), king. Köping (Swed.), village. Kopp or koppe (Ger.), top, peak, summit. Kosui (Jap.), lake. Krasnoi (Russ.), pretty. Ksar (Arab.), fortified village. Kuchuk (Turk.), little. Kuh, see koh. Kul (Tart.), lake. Kum (Tart.), sand. Kuro (Jap.), black. Küste (Ger.), coast. La (Hind.), pass. Lac(Fr.), lago(Ital., Span., Port.), lake. Laguna (Span., Ital.), lagoon. Lande (Fr.), steppe, plain. Lax (Scan.), lachs (Ger.), salmon. Levante (Ital.), east. Ley, leigh (A. S., leah), a meadow. Lieu (Fr.), a place. Lille (Norw.), little. Liman (Russ.), a harbour. Liman (Turk.), a bay. Lin, linn (Celt.), llyn (Welsh), a pool or lake Ling (Chin.), mountains, tableland. Lis (Celt.), a fort. Liten (Swed.), little. Llan (Welsh), a church. Llano, llanura (Span.), a plain. Llyn, llun (Welsh), a lake. Loch (Celt.), a lake or arm of the sea. Loma (Span.), hill. Loo (Dutch), meadow. Low, law (A.-S., hlaw), an elevation. a hill. Ma (Arab.), water. Måden (Arab.), a mine. Maen (Welsh), a stone or rock. Maes (Welsh), a meadow. Magh (Celt.), a plain. Maha (Hind.), great. Mala, maly (Slav.), little.

Mare (Roum.), great. Mark (Teut.=Eng., march), a boundary. Matt (Teut.), a meadow. Mauna (Haw.), mountain. Mawr (Welsh), great. Me (Siam.), river. Medina (Arab.), town. Meer, mère (Teut.), sea or lake. Mesa, meseta (Span.), plateau. Minato (Jap.), port, harbour. Minster (Lat.), a monastery (Ger. form, münster). Mo (Chin.), sea. Moel (Welsh), bald, appled to rounded barren hills. Moer (Dutch), marsh. Montana (Span.), monte (It.), mountsin Mor (Celt.), mawr (Welsh), great. Mor (Welsh), the sea. Morfa (Welsh), a marsh or heath. Mühl (Ger.), mill. Mull (Gael.), a headland. Mund, münde (Ger.), mouth or estuary. Mynydd (Welsh), a mountain. Nada (Jap.), a bay. Nadi (Hind.), river. Naga (Jap.), long. Nagy (Mag.), great. Nahr (Arab.), river. Nan (Chin.), southern. Nant (Welsh), a valley. Näs (Scand.), nose, cape. Neder (Dutch), lower. Nefud (Arab.), a river of sand. Negro (Span., Port., Ital.), black. Nehrung (Ger.), a narrow tongue of land which forms a small bay. Nejd (Arab.), elevated country. Ness (Scand.), a nose or cape. Neu (Ger.), new. Nevada (Span.), snowy. Nieder (Ger.), under, lower. Nijni (Russ.), lower. Nisi (Gr.), island. Nor (Mong.), lake. Norte (Span.), north. Nos (Russ.), nose, cape. Novoi, novaia (Russ.), new. Nuevo, nueva (Span.), nuovo (Ital.), new Nur (Hind.), light. Ny (Swed.), new. Q (Mag.), old. Ö, oe (Scand.), island. Ober (Ger.), upper. Oglat (Berber), a natural reservoir of

water.

Oho (Jap.), great. Ola, oola (Mong.), mountain. Oost (Dutch), east. Ost (Ger.), öster (Scand.), east. Ostrov (Slav.), island. Pampa (Span.), grassy plain. Para (Hind.), village. Para (Ind., S. America), river. Patak (Mag.), little. Patam (Sans.), city. Pe (Chin.), northern. Pei (Chin.), white. Pen (Celt.), a head, mountain. Pena (Span.), penha (Port.), a rock. Pic (Fr.), pico (Span.), peak. Pied (Fr.), a foot. Pnom (Annam.), mountain. Polder (Dutch), marshes drained and reclaimed. Polis (Gr.), a city. Pont (modern Fr. and Welsh, from Lat. pontus), a bridge. Porto (Port., Ital.), harbour. Potamos (Gr.), river. Poor, pore, pur (Sans., pura), a town. Pueblo (Span.), town. Puerto (Span.), port. Pulo (Mal.), an island. Punta (Span.), point. Pur (Sans.), a town. Puszta (Mag.), a steppe or plain. Putra (Hind.), a son. Puy (Celt.=Fr., pic), a peak. Pwil, pool (Celt.), a lake or inlet. Quelle (Ger.), source. Rancho (Span.), camping place. Ras (Arab.), cape.

Rub (Arab.), cape. Rath (Oelt.), an earthwork fort. Reich (Ger.), kingdom. Rhaiadr (Welsh), waterfall. Ridge (Eng.), rigg (Scot.), a back. Rio (Span., Port., Ital.), river. Riva (Ital.), coast. Ross (Celt.), a promontory. Roto (Macri), lake. Rud (Pers.), river.

Sahara (Arab.), desert. Saki (Jap.), cape. Saiz (Ger.), sait. San, santo, santa (Span., Port., Ital.), saint, sainte (Fr.), saint or holy. San (Jap.), mountain. Sasso (Ital.), rock. Scar (Scand.), a cliff. Schnee (Ger.), snow. Schwarz (Ger.), black. Sebkha (Arab.), sait lake.

See (Ger.), lake. Selva (Span.), forest. Serai (Turk.), a palace. Serra (Port.), sierra (Span.), mountain chain. Sex, Saxon, e.g., Essex = East Saxons. Sha (Chin.), sand. Shan (Chin.), mountain. Shar (Samoyede), strait. Shat (Arab.), river. Shehr (Turk.), city. Shott (Arab.), lake. Si (Chin.), west. Sidi (Arab.), overlord. Sierra (Span.), mountain chain. Sima (Jap.), island. Sk (Slav.), town. Slieve (Erse), mountain. Snee, snoe (Scand.), snow. Sneeuw (Dutch), snow. Song (Annam.), river. Sono (Ital.), under. Spitz (Ger.), peak. Stad, stadt (Teut.), a town. Stan (Pers.), a land. Staple (A.-S.), a store. Stari (Slav.), old. Stor (Scand.), great. Strath (Celt.), a broad valley. Street (from Lat., stratum), a road. Su (Turk.), river. Sul (Port.), south, southern. Sumpf (Ger.), marsh. Sund (Scand.), strait. Sur (Span.), south, of the south. Syrt (Tar.), plateau. Szent (Mag.), saint. Ta, tai (Chin.), great. Tagh, see dagh. Tagh (Turk.), stone. Taï (Jap.), great. Take or dake (Jap.), peak. Tal (Hind.), a lake. Tala or dala (Mong.), desert. Tam (Celt.), smooth. Tan (Turk.), mountain. Tao (Chin.), island. Tara (Maori), rock. Tehama (Arab.), lowland. Tell (Arab.), a hill. Tepe (Turk.), hill, summit. Tepetl (Aztec), mountain. Terra (Port., Ital.), tierra (Span.), land. Thal (Ger.), valley, dale. Thian (Chin.), heaven. Thorpe (Scand.), a village. Timor (Mal.), east. Tind (Dan., Norw.), mountain peak. Tizi (Berber), a pass.

Toft (Scand.), an enclosure. Tok (Somali), river. Ton (A.-S.), town. Tong (Chin.), east. Tor (Celt.), a tower-like rock or hill. Tracth, see draeth. Traws (Welsh), across. Tre, tref (Welsh), a town. Tri (Gr.), three. Tung, see tong. Ty (Welsh), a house. Ucha, uwch (Welsh), higher. Uchel (Welsh), uachter (Gael.), high, height. Ula (Manchu.), river. Unter (Ger.), under. Vaari (Dutch), canal. Valle, val (Span., Ital.), valley. Van (Jap.), bay. Vand (Norw.), lake. Var, varad (Mag.), fortified town. Varos (Mag.), town. Vasar (Mag.), market. Vatn (Norw.), lake. Vecchio, vecchia (Ital.), old. Veld (Dutch), field. Veld (Dutch), field. Veliki (Russ.), great. Vesi (Finn.), lake. Viejo (Span.), old. Viki (Icel.), bay. Villa (Ital., Span., Port.), ville (Fr.), town. Vinh (Annam.), gulf. Visni (Slav.), upper. Vley (Dutch), a pool. Wadi (Arab.), a river-valley. Wai (Maori), water. Wald (Ger.), weald, wold (Eng.), forest or wood. Wasser (Ger.), water. Weiss (Ger.), white. Wick, wich (A.-S.), a village, (Scand.), a bay. Wold, see wald. Worth (A.-S.), a farm or estate. Wy, gwy (Welsh), water. Yama (Jap.), mountain. Yeni (Turk.), new. Ynys (Welsh), see ennis. Ystrad (Welsh: corr. of Lat. stratum), a road. Zab, pl. ziban (Arab.), oasis, oases. Zee (Dutch), sea. Zemlia (Russ.), country, land. Zuid (Dutch), south. Zwart (Dutch), black.

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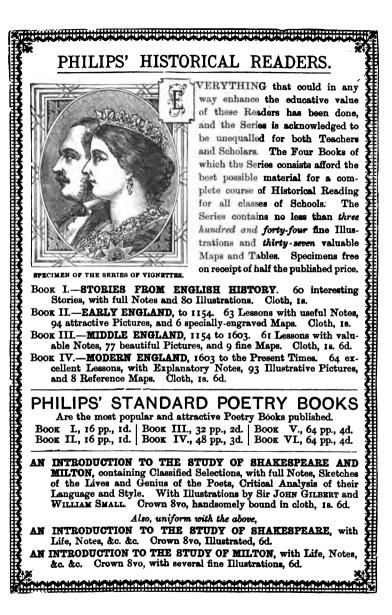
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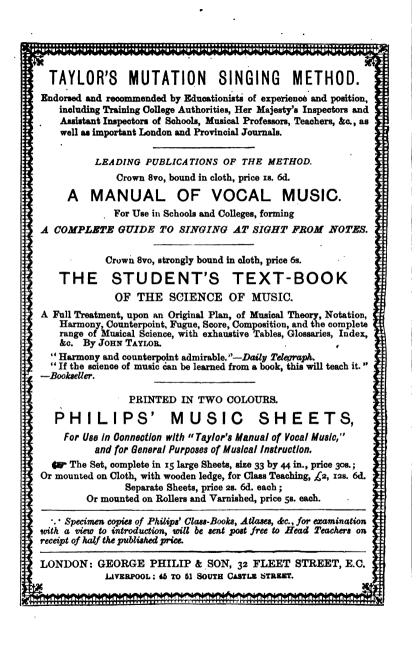
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